

THE
SATURDAY REVIEW
OF
POLITICS, LITERATURE, SCIENCE, AND ART.

No. 1,354, Vol. 52.

October 8, 1881.

[Registered for
Transmission abroad.]

Price 6d.

THE TRANSVAAL.

THERE is little reason for surprise at the latest performance of the Boer Triumvirate, although a cynic might derive amusement from its consideration. The attitude of the Triumvirate throughout the negotiations might not inaptly be compared to that of the fisherman and his wife in the German story, who made one monstrous demand after another from the Turbot. There was, it will be remembered, a point at which the fish's patience gave way, and it may be hoped that at the present juncture the parallel will be found as close as it has hitherto been. The desire to make a one-sided agreement is perhaps neither novel nor unnatural, but seldom has such a desire been expressed with so simple or so cynical an openness. When it was first proposed that the QUEEN should be styled Suzerain of the Transvaal, some doubts were entertained as to the exact meaning or value of the title, and possibly its ambiguity may have encouraged the present attempt of the Triumvirate to make it an absolute cipher by rejecting the stipulations for the Suzerain's control over the external relations of the State, and power to veto laws. In agreeable contrast to the position proposed for the Suzerain is that modestly assumed for the President, who, in the estimation of the Triumvirate, is hedged with such divinity that it would ill become him to be a member of "any Commission." As might have been expected, the articles affecting native interests seem to the Triumvirate the reverse of acceptable. The third, which provides against any enactment affecting native interests being passed without consent given through the British Resident, is described as "opposed to the spirit of complete self-government." Four articles are objected to as "superfluous, and calculated to give offence." Among them is Article 16, which follows the Sand River Convention of 1852 in providing that "no slavery, or apprenticeship partaking of slavery, will be tolerated by the Government." At this, it would seem, the Triumvirate wraps itself indignantly in its virtue, and protests against the Boers—the natives' best friends—being told not to do what they never dreamt of doing. If it is granted, for the purpose of argument, that no Boer ever did, does, or will wish to have anything to do with "slavery, or apprenticeship partaking of slavery," then why, it may be asked, this indignation, which seems at least as "superfluous" as the articles objected to? It is generally found that the objections of people whose highly-strung natures are offended by the existence of laws and regulations are founded upon something more than sentimental delicacy. The same keen sense of honour which is roused by the prohibition of slavery and the suggestion that the President should be a member of the Native Location Commission, has led the Triumvirate, not unnaturally, to attempt the simple and not very original move of repudiation.

In fine, what the Triumvirate proposes to do is to accept every article favourable and to reject every article unfavourable to the comfort and supremacy of the Boers in a Convention already signed by the Boers' accredited representatives. The Convention was sent to the Volksraad not to be discussed point by point over again, but to be ratified or rejected *en bloc*—rejection to be followed by the reversion of the country to the British Crown on the 9th of next month. It is perhaps not strange if the Triumvirate have persuaded themselves that such a

stipulation as this may be safely regarded as an idle form, or that, so long as the present Government is in office, they have only to ask often enough and loudly enough in order to get whatever they please to ask for. But it is perhaps hard upon them that they should have been nursed in such beliefs; for, unless they learn wisdom in time, the process of disillusionment may turn out to be unpleasant. We have, it is true, learnt to be surprised at nothing that Mr. GLADSTONE may do, but it is scarcely to be imagined that the Government can hesitate for a moment as to the course to be pursued on this occasion. That the Transvaal troubles will come to an end with the acceptance of the Convention can hardly be hoped or supposed; but it will at least be well to postpone their renewal by firmness at this juncture.

SIR STAFFORD NORTHCOTE IN YORKSHIRE.

SIR STAFFORD NORTHCOTE'S speeches at Hull and Beverley were not calculated to produce strong excitement. He was perhaps in some degree embarrassed or chilled by the knowledge that a formidable adversary would in two or three days take advantage of any opening which he might offer. The custom of delivering political speeches in the Parliamentary recess dates from the first Reform Bill. In earlier times sound political traditions had accustomed the people to public discussion, especially at county meetings. It has now become necessary to address speeches exclusively to the members of one political party. An audience which might have included any considerable number of Liberals would have silenced Sir STAFFORD NORTHCOTE by clamour before he had made much progress in his speech. Since little benefit is to be gained by confirming a belief in opinions already fixed, it might appear at first sight that oral supplements to the daily disquisitions of party newspapers were not urgently required; but there is a definite advantage in procuring the insertion of speeches on either side in papers which might otherwise never notice unpalatable arguments. It is for this reason that the publication of faithful reports of Parliamentary debates is essential to the efficiency of constitutional government. In the recess meetings of Conservative or Liberal Associations furnish to a certain extent a similar opportunity of public, though intermittent, discussion. When the leaders on both sides are equally matched, a comparison of their speeches is almost as instructive as an actual debate. The advantage which is enjoyed by the more brilliant and more effective orator is legitimate and unavoidable. Mr. GLADSTONE will probably enunciate at Leeds unsound and dangerous doctrines; but his eloquence will not fail to stimulate the enthusiasm of his followers.

It was probably desirable to impress on the Conservative minority of Hull the expediency of cultivating the art of organization. As Sir STAFFORD NORTHCOTE justly observed, a local opposition acts as a check on the dominant party, and it offers on some occasions valuable assistance to conscientious politicians of the majority, who may from time to time be shocked by the extravagance of their allies. There can be few moderate Liberals in Hull or elsewhere who feel any confidence in the present Government, though they may not be prepared to abandon their party. The

Conservatives, if they are prudently led, and if they abstain from adhesion to false doctrines, may expect with just confidence frequent accessions to their ranks. The apologists of outrage, the advocates of legislative spoliation, will alienate more and more the respectable members of the party. The hasty partisans whose theories would, if they were accepted, render impossible an otherwise inevitable coalition, are only less mischievous than the Jacobins of modern Liberalism. It is in no way desirable that the Conservative party should pack itself after the example of the Birmingham Liberals. The intolerance and tyranny of the Liberal Federation furnishes rather a warning than an example. It may be doubted whether Sir STAFFORD NORTHCOTE was well advised in devoting the earlier part of his speech at Hull to commonplaces about the virtues of Yorkshiremen. When an able man deals in empty phrases, he is suspected, perhaps unjustly, of either wishing to conceal his thoughts or having nothing to say. The leader of the Opposition in the House of Commons is not a believer in vulgar platitudes, but he sometimes seems to form too low an estimate of the capacity and judgment of his hearers. If Yorkshiremen deserve either the compliments which he paid them or their popular reputation for astuteness, they can have been but moderately flattered by praises of their supposed good qualities.

The speech at Hull would have been more effective if the attacks on the policy of the Government had been exclusively directed against one or two vulnerable points. Sir STAFFORD NORTHCOTE referred to the complications which exist, not only in Ireland and the Transvaal, but in Egypt, and in France since the suspension of the commercial negotiations. The result may be that a successful defence at any point will destroy or weaken the force of just criticism and censure. The Egyptian difficulty has not been recently created, though it may be aggravated by the consequences of Mr. GLADSTONE's wild language used before he was in office. The conduct of the Government with respect to the Commercial Treaty has been firm and consistent, and there is reason to believe that it has been regarded with general satisfaction. If Sir STAFFORD NORTHCOTE had been in office he would probably have followed the same course of exhibiting neither reluctance to conclude a treaty nor undue eagerness. Of the danger and humiliation which have perhaps already been incurred in the Transvaal it was difficult to speak too strongly. The Government is directly responsible for the natural consequences of its ignoble policy. To place the armistice and the Convention on the same level with the difficulties attending the negotiation of the French treaty is to facilitate the acquittal of the Ministers. The supineness with which Irish anarchy and the consequent usurpation of a rival Government are tolerated would alone have sufficed for an indictment of the Ministerial policy. Lord BEACONSFIELD, in a similar position, would not have wasted his indignation on secondary miscarriages when he had the opportunity of denouncing unpardonable complicity or weakness; yet it would be unreasonable to find fault with an able party leader for not possessing the same gifts by which his predecessor was distinguished. Sir STAFFORD NORTHCOTE, by his wide knowledge, his fairness, and his temper, inspires a confidence which is not less valuable than the enthusiasm which responds to rhetorical appeals. It is especially fortunate for the Conservative party at the present time that it is led by a sound and scientific economist. The party of subversion ought not to possess a monopoly, in questions relating to trade, of the sound doctrines which it utterly rejects when there is a prospect of agrarian spoliation.

In his Beverley speech Sir STAFFORD NORTHCOTE expatiated still more largely than at Hull on the duty of attending to local organization. He must have felt satisfaction in addressing an audience principally composed of farmers who had at the last election adhered to their proper political allegiance. It is true that, as Sir STAFFORD NORTHCOTE said, it is more difficult to secure party organization in counties than in towns. A body of electors dispersed over a wide district has less facility of combination than the population of a borough; and in some cases an electoral success may have been snatched in consequence of carelessness by an active minority. Such cases occur but rarely; but the prevention of surprises is a legitimate object of organiza-

tion. The supporters of the Government lately felt or professed confidence of success in Durham and North Lincolnshire; and they brought a candidate from a distance to contest the seat for Cambridgeshire. The Conservative journal which always favours the interests of the Government warned its nominal allies that their attempt to secure either Durham or North Lincolnshire was absolutely hopeless. The organization in both counties, whether or not it had been previously prepared, proved sufficient to ensure a defeat of the Liberal party. The Beverley audience may perhaps have been more deeply interested in Sir S. NORTHCOTE's account of the benefits which, during his tenure of office, he had conferred on the ratepayers at the expense of the Treasury. His partial rearrangement of the burden of taxation may have been just and expedient, and, after a vote of the former House of Commons, it was unavoidable. It was perhaps natural to assume in a speech addressed to rural electors that the benefit was conferred on owners and occupiers, though ratepayers in towns received a large portion of the boon. Railway shareholders also contribute an extravagant proportion of the rates which are supposed to be levied on the land; but it cannot be denied that Sir STAFFORD NORTHCOTE's financial legislation was, to some extent, beneficial to the agricultural interest. Mr. GLADSTONE may perhaps, under cover of a cloud of figures, seek to establish an opposite conclusion. In the present condition of public affairs it is impossible to follow up a side issue with serious attention. When the integrity of the United Kingdom is threatened, when unscrupulous agitators on this side of the Channel demand for purely selfish purposes the expropriation of landowners, the readjustment of rates and taxes excites but a languid interest.

EGYPT.

THE despatch of Special Commissioners by the SULTAN to Cairo has added a new difficulty to the many difficulties which the protecting Governments have to encounter in Egypt. The SULTAN can have no motive in sending these Commissioners except to assert his rights as suzerain; to make them apparent to all the world, and especially to the Mahommedan world; and, above all, to impress on the Egyptians that they belong to Turkey. The difficulty thus created is that it is convenient to the protecting Governments that the SULTAN should hold a suzerainty over Egypt, while it is equally convenient that he should never make this suzerainty more than a name. If the action now taken by the SULTAN is judged by merely technical rules, it must be owned that there is no objection to it. The present KHEDIVÉ holds his position in Egypt entirely by an exercise of the SULTAN's power as suzerain. His father was deposed because the SULTAN, having examined into the mode in which he had been governing Egypt, found that he had not been governing well. He was a Pasha who had been tried and found wanting. He was told by the SULTAN that he must go; he obeyed, as a matter of course, and went. The SULTAN told TEWFIK that he was to be the new Pasha, and TEWFIK at once became the new Pasha. In the process of time the new man is seen to be governing the country in a manner which causes his chief anxiety. He is the victim of a military revolution, he is surrounded by unpopular Ministers, and only changes his Ministers under the dictation of officers who tell him that they have his successor ready if he is obstinate. The SULTAN feels that he may have some day to depose the Governor who governs in so ineffectual a way. But, in his paternal kindness, he is reluctant to judge and condemn without being quite sure of the facts; and he hopes that there is still time for warning and advice, and that, if good counsel is given and taken, TEWFIK may be saved, and may re-establish his tottering claim to remain in office as a good and worthy Pasha. He accordingly, at a critical moment, sends Commissioners to ascertain exactly what TEWFIK has been doing, to help him in his troubles, and to teach him how to avoid such troubles in the future. If the SULTAN's suzerainty is to be taken seriously, this seems on the face of it by no means improper or extraordinary on the part of the suzerain; and the protecting Powers certainly appeared to take the SULTAN's suzerainty seriously when they invited him to exercise it by deposing ISMAEL. They recognized that

the SULTAN had the power to depose an erring Pasha, and they found in the exercise of this power a swift and easy means of getting rid of a Pasha who had displeased and affronted them. Even if the SULTAN would agree only to exercise his power of deposition on the request or with the assent of England and France, he might still very plausibly say that he must be allowed to examine for himself what is the conduct of a Pasha whom he may be invited or permitted to depose, and to use his timely influence so as to avert the necessity of having to put his latent power in force. What the protecting Powers would probably like is that the SULTAN's authority as suzerain should in ordinary circumstances be non-existent; that he should have no more to do with Egypt than he has with Persia; but that every now and then his authority should flash into a momentary existence at their bidding and for their purposes. It is needless to say that, although diplomatic pressure has been used to give some such character as this to the SULTAN's authority over Egypt, no claim has ever been formulated that this is to be the true and permanent character of his authority; that, on the contrary, the character of the SULTAN's authority in Egypt has been purposely left vague, and that, if France could be justified in making such a claim because of her special interests in Egypt, it is very difficult to see why she should not make the same claim as regards Tripoli.

There seems to be an idea of a very hazy kind, but which floats about in its random manner, that England ought now to do something wonderfully strong and bold in Egypt, to cut herself adrift from France and Europe, and announce that she intends to come forward as the sole and unfettered guardian or owner of Egypt. It is even suggested that the Cabinet has already formed a plan of this sort, and that Mr. GLADSTONE is commissioned to disclose the great secret at Leeds. What the Cabinet may be planning cannot be known until the world is told; but it may be said, without hesitation, that, if the Cabinet has any scheme of the sort, it is entirely departing from the policy which England has pursued towards Egypt and Turkey under a succession of Ministries for half a century. Lord PALMERSTON persistently set himself to oppose the dominating influence of Constantinople to the aspirations of Egyptian ambition when Egyptian and French ambition were synonymous. Lord DERBY brought about the arrangement by which the administration of justice in Egypt was placed under the control, not only of the Great European Powers, but of tiny European Powers which practically have no more interest in the administration of justice in Egypt than they have in the administration of justice in Timbuctoo. Lord DERBY and Lord SALISBURY cheerfully allowed France to share with England the financial control of Egypt when all Europe agreed that some control over Egyptian finance was necessary. When the late Viceroy tried to upset the authority of the protecting Powers, England declined to interfere, although France pressed for interference, and it was not her own policy or the pressure of France, but the sudden intervention of Germany, which made England at last take active steps. What she did when she determined to do something was to appeal, in conjunction with France, to the sovereign authority of Turkey, and the course thus taken met with the ready assent of the other Great Powers. Not only was a precedent thus created, of which the SULTAN is now taking advantage, but a fresh step was taken towards placing Egypt under the guardianship of England and France in the first line, but also under the guardianship of the other Great Powers in the second line. As long as the protecting Powers control Egypt through Turkey they must share their control with all other Powers that can control Turkey. The dependence of Egypt on Turkey means the dependence of Egypt on all the Powers on whom Turkey is dependent. The other Great Powers view with indifference or approbation the control which England and France exercise in Egypt, because through the Egyptian tribunals and through their power of pressure at Constantinople they share this control. Their share is not a very large one, and is of a kind which in ordinary times escapes notice; but it exists, and to ignore its existence, to make some sort of bargain with France, and to treat the other Great Powers and Turkey as having nothing to do with Egypt, would not only be a very hazardous policy on the part of England, but a perfectly new one. That this new policy, the policy of a sudden and violent disruption of the European Concert, should

commend itself to a Ministry that specially piques itself on the good uses to which it has put the European Concert and its invention, seems totally incredible.

England has now the choice between two policies. It may work on the lines laid down by this and preceding Ministries, striving to make the best of things; working with France; consulting, after France, the other Great Powers which have an indirect control over Egypt; not denying the SULTAN's rights, but shaping the actual exercise of his power so as to make it as narrow and harmless as possible; considering with calmness what it is that dissatisfied Egyptians want, and how far their desires can be safely gratified; and only prepared to use force if, in the last resort, force must be used, in a way that has the general approval of Europe. The other policy is to do something bold and original—to seize on Egypt openly or under the disguise of an exclusively English guarantee, and to defy the world. Among other objections to this second policy, it may be observed that it would in all probability tend to defeat its own object. The only object it is supposed to serve is the guarding of British India. We are to take Egypt in order to keep India. It seems an odd way of guarding India to set an example of lawless violence, and to make all Europe our enemy. It is, no doubt, possible that, if England announced its intention of seizing on Egypt, no Power might think it worth while to make the seizure a cause of open and immediate war. Even France might resent and protest, but submit. But the restraining influence of England in Europe as a conciliatory and peaceful Power would be at an end. What we had done in Egypt France might do in Tripoli, Russia in Armenia, or Austria in the Balkan peninsula. We should either have to look on in a quiet and humble frame of mind while others were imitating our example, or we should have to go into a war of our own seeking in order to prove that we could guard our route to India. Apart from initiative acts of spoliation, we should have alienated all the Powers that think they have interests in Europe which ought not to be overlooked. We have been preaching in the last month to the French day after day, and showing them the folly of alienating Spain and Italy by their Tunis expedition. The French would have an opportunity which they would keenly enjoy of sending our sermons back to us, and showing our folly in alienating every Mediterranean Power in order to have a free and open highway through the Mediterranean. As a mere matter of gain and loss, apart from the serious questions of principle involved, we should probably do better to rely on our power of sending troops to India in war time round the Cape than to rely on our power of sending them through the Canal in the face of an alarmed and provoked Europe. As things are now, every European Power recognizes that we have interests in Egypt which we must uphold. If we uphold them in such a manner as to command the approval and concurrence of Europe, we really uphold them. If we uphold them so as to shock and alienate other Powers, we destroy the very interests we are seeking to protect.

PROGRESS OF AGRARIAN LEGISLATION.

THOSE who foretold that the anomalies of the Irish Land Bill would be speedily converted from exceptional remedies into precedents find their apprehensions justified sooner than they expected. Mr. J. HOWARD and his associates in the Farmers' Alliance have already drafted a Bill for the arbitrary transfer of a large part of the property of landowners to themselves or the tenant-farmers whom they profess to represent. It may be confidently asserted that a more audacious project was never submitted to a Legislature; but it is impossible to estimate the injustice of which the present Government and its obedient majority may be capable. Before the text of the Bill was published, for the apparent purpose of accustoming public opinion to novel and unscrupulous demands, the governing body of the Alliance published a sketch of the proposed Bill in the congenial and sympathetic columns of the *Standard*. The writer, who performed his task without the smallest attempt to disguise the purposes of his clients, apparently belonged to the Birmingham section of the staff of the paper. It seemed

probable that one of his Conservative colleagues would afterwards be instructed to examine the new agrarian project of law. The expectation was justified by an article on the Bill itself, which was a model of apology or approval under a pretence of adverse criticism. The compiler of the previous abstract executed his task with accurate fidelity. His insinuated vindication of its provisions probably represents the arguments which will be used by the promoters. As he calmly and truly states, the Bill will "virtually grant the three F's, without actually mentioning them." "A farm will" (from the point of view of "the Alliance") "become a 'subject,' in which two persons, 'owner and occupier, have joint, but not equal, rights of property; and the question is, how these rights are to be differentiated.'" The land-owner may be well assured that, if the doctrines of the Farmers' Alliance prevail, any residue of his rights which he may for the present be nominally allowed to retain will, by further abuse of political power, soon be differentiated away. By the proposed Bill the differentiation will be effected after the model of the Irish Land Bill on principles which the Farmers' Alliance borrows from the Irish Land League. In due time, perhaps, a Taxpayers' Alliance will propose to convert the Funds into a subject in which two persons, taxpayer and fundholder, have a joint but not an equal, right of property. Debtors of all classes will be equally willing to enter on a process of differentiation with their creditors.

The three F's, if they are not mentioned, are introduced without any attempt at concealment. The framers of the Bill are kind enough to allow existing contracts to remain in force, as long as neither party desires an alteration; but a landlord who wishes to raise the rent may apply, and the tenant who wishes to lower the rent will apply, to a Land Court which is as completely as in Ireland to supersede all freedom of contract. There is something which may be called impudent in the suggested constitution of the body which is to differentiate the property of the landlord into the pocket of the tenant. It is true that the County Court judge who is to preside will probably wish to do justice, though he will have no definite or intelligible law to administer; but the most important part of his duty will consist in valuation of land and improvements; and his probable incompetence to assume the functions of a land surveyor will place him in the hands of the assessors who are to be appointed by the Board of Guardians, or, in other words, by the tenant-farmers. The judges at whose mercy the whole landed property of the kingdom is to be placed will probably be selected on account of their well-known bias against the rights of landlords. Mr. HOWARD and his friends are unconscious of the contemptuous estimate which their proposals involve of the honesty and wisdom of the Ministers whose support they hope to purchase by their votes.

To divide property between the undoubted owner and an intruder under the arbitration of a tribunal representing the new claimant is a wanton defiance of justice and decency which would two or three years ago have been deemed inconceivable. The other provisions of the Bill are worthy of the machinery by which it is to be administered. The tenant who receives notice to quit after the rent has been fixed by the Land Court may put up his interest for sale in the open market, and compel the landlord either to accept the purchaser as tenant or to pay the outgoing tenant the price which has been offered. As no part of the measure is even ostensibly consistent with justice or economic principle, it is perhaps useless to remark that a new tenant-right would imply that the Land Court has fixed the rent too low. The present occupier paid no premium on coming in; and he demands a premium on going out, for no reason except that many farmers voted for Mr. GLADSTONE at the last election. The enactment of any portion of the Bill would be an act of bribery as gross as any distribution of sovereigns which has been made by the Man in the Moon. The exponent and eulogist of the Bill who writes in the *Standard* declares that the proposed tenant-right "for the first time puts the vexed question of 'improvements upon a logical and commercial basis.'"

Having assumed that there is no need to trouble Ministers about any question but the promotion of the interests of tenant-farmers, the managers of the Alliance proceed to disport themselves at will in all other relations between landlord and tenant. All contracts made in violation of the principles of the Bill are to be rendered null and void. "All forfeitures on the ground of breach of cove-

"nant will also in all likelihood be ignored." "All conditions as to the nature and succession of crops are 'virtually abolished.'" An occupier for two or three years will be able to break up old meadow land of which the qualities could not be reproduced in a single lifetime, with the sole risk of incurring liability to a payment to be assessed by two neighbouring farmers, engaged perhaps in a similar operation. "The tithe-charges will in all probability be placed on the same footing as house duty at present, the tenant paying them in the first instance, and then deducting them from the rent." The Committee of the Alliance probably chuckle over the reflection that the amount of tithe rent-charge has, in ordinary practice, been already deducted from the rent, as one of the considerations in the contract of letting. The mode in which the Bill deals with the question of rates may be inferred from its general provisions. "The Committee engaged in revising the draft of the Bill have, we learn, agreed that only one 'fourth of the local rates levied on farm land shall be paid 'by the tenant.'" It may be asked why, in appropriating to themselves the goods of their neighbours, the tenant-farmers should restrict themselves to three-fourths of the whole. Some agrarian REGAN will probably outbid the GONERIL of Bedford by proposing to lay all the rates on the landlord, whose rent has already been reduced by the full amount. The tenant-farmers as represented by the Guardians will have the pleasure of expending the rates of which the unhappy owners are to pay three-fourths. The instinct of predatory selfishness acquires strength as it moves.

What needs he five-and-twenty, ten, or five?

Although arguments addressed to those who avowedly legislate for their own exclusive benefit are likely to be wasted, some considerations of prudence and self-interest may be worth the consideration of farmers who are disposed to join the Alliance in the hope of sharing the profits of spoliation. Mr. GLADSTONE, on whom the hopes of the Alliance are fixed, has already paid them a part of the price of their votes in the Ground Game Bill of last year. He would perhaps be willing to grant them a further boon at the expense of perverse Tory landlords; but they are not the only claimants on his bounty. Before it was thought possible to purchase the support of the farmers, the party now dominant had promised to enfranchise the labourers, in the well-founded hope of ensuring their political support. Household suffrage in counties will almost certainly be enacted by the present Parliament, and at the next election the new constituencies will show their gratitude to their benefactors, but not without a distinct expectation of future favours. The demands of the labourers will, from the nature of the case, be almost exclusively directed against the farmers. The Land Court may furnish a precedent for a Wages Court, which would exercise a not more anomalous jurisdiction. A Nine Hours Bill might also find a chance of acceptance if it were supported by a sufficient number of county votes. The institution of a peasant proprietary, though it might be more remote, would put an end not only to the Alliance, but to the farmers who compose it. The only mode of encountering dangerous schemes of innovation is to abide by sound principles of law and economy. If property is to depend on a majority of votes, the large farmers will soon be swept away. They already propose, for the benefit of the present occupiers, to subject all future tenants to an extreme rack-rent by compelling them to purchase the tenant-right at a price to be fixed by competition. The labourers, when they attain political power, will scarcely respect the newly acquired rights of a middle-class oligarchy of irremovable occupiers. It will, indeed, be difficult to defend a one-sided fixity of tenure, while the tenant retains the right, which he now frequently exercises, of throwing up his farm at pleasure.

TINKERING THE HOUSE OF LORDS.

AN article on the House of Lords in the *Fortnightly Review* painfully illustrates the unstable condition of all English institutions. That a periodical of revolutionary tendencies should contain an attack on that part of the established system which is most obnoxious to zealous democrats would cause no surprise; but Mr. RATHBONE, the author of the present essay, is a temperate advocate of changes which he would willingly restrain within safe

and reasonable limits. His objections to the House of Lords, as it now exists, are not founded on social jealousy; nor is he disposed to do injustice to the great qualities of many members of the hereditary aristocracy. He believes that rank and wealth may still advantageously be used to strengthen an efficient Second Chamber; but he thinks that the House of Lords ought to derive its authority from election, while he admits that there may be a reasonable difference of opinion as to the constituencies to be created for the purpose. A feeling of regret that a proposal for abolishing the present House of Lords should proceed from such a quarter indicates no want of respect for Mr. RATHBONE's ability and character. Plausible and even forcible arguments may be used against almost every branch of the ancient Constitution, including the highest summit, which is not yet included in the plan of revolutionary advance. The doctrine which is more than once propounded by Mr. RATHBONE, that in the present day every institution must justify itself by its practical utility, would perhaps be sound if it were universally applied. To some minds it seems that one gigantic exception practically vitiates the rule. Those who regard the absolute supremacy of numbers as the greatest of anomalies are quite certain that it rests, not on any calculation of expediency, but on physical force. The only power by which it can be even practically counterbalanced is respect for tradition, or the habit of acquiescing in the existing results of historical causes. Democracy, which questions all other authority, never examines its own credentials. In a sentence which is composed for another purpose, Mr. RATHBONE casually justifies the existence of the House of Lords. The leisured class is, as he justly says, the informal constituency of a Second Chamber. He might have added that in a short time the leisured class will be represented in no other assembly. It is already disfranchised in France, and to a great extent even in the far more healthy political organization of the United States. In neither country is property so seriously threatened as it has been of late in the United Kingdom. The House of Lords may perhaps not be strong enough to stem the tide of revolution; but its power of resistance may probably be greater than that of any substitute which could be contrived.

Mr. RATHBONE is thoroughly sincere in his desire to strengthen a House of Lords, under that or some other name, for the discharge of functions which he holds to be of paramount importance. He oddly illustrates the necessity of such a barrier to improvident legislation by "the working of American politics during the last forty years." He truly says that "the need of conciliating compact and selfish minorities made it hard, at one time almost impossible, for an honest man to be a politician." He adds that the same cause made possible a growth of local taxation almost equivalent (as in the city of New York) to confiscation. In the United States there is, as Mr. RATHBONE elsewhere observes, the most powerful Second Chamber which anywhere exists. Even in TWEED'S Irish Republic of New York the Board of Aldermen revised the decisions of the predatory Town Council. The want of a check on dishonesty and wrongful legislation was produced by the common origin of all powers in the Federation, the State, and the Municipality. The same constituency directly or indirectly elected them all; and the class which possessed property and leisure was represented by no House of Lords. It is true that in England the hereditary branch of the Legislature has many imperfections; but it was hardly worth Mr. RATHBONE's while to quote, in support of his own more valuable opinion, the supposed admissions of a writer "whom we cannot suppose prejudiced against that House of which he will one day be a member." There have always been aristocrats who, through caprice or love of notoriety, affected hostility to their own order. In quiet times such patriots make the best of both worlds by combining the advantages of rank with the favour which may be earned by the profession of popular opinions. The Liberal nobles of the French Revolution were destined to acquire an opposite experience, which may be profitably studied by their successors in other countries.

Mr. RATHBONE, though he is free from conscious unfairness, scarcely does justice to the mode in which the House of Lords conducts important business. Mr. FREDERIC HARRISON, who is certainly not more friendly to the House of Lords than Mr. RATHBONE, lately cited the debates on the Irish Land Bill as models of method, if not of sub-

stance. Mr. RATHBONE, on the other hand, thinks that the Peers by their attitude seemed to court destruction. They were, by no fault of their own, placed in a difficult and awkward position. Their duty to themselves and the country forbade the rejection of the Bill, and yet it was proper and necessary that they should record their objections to its principle. Lord LANSDOWNE's speech, which was perhaps the best delivered on the occasion, contained a conclusive exposure of the political and economic faults of the measure. In a concluding paragraph he intimated that the evils of rejection would nevertheless be greater than those which could result from acceptance of the Bill. The Ministers, and not the Opposition, were responsible for making offers which were in their nature incapable of retraction or of reduction. Mr. HARRISON praised the rapidity with which the House of Lords elaborates details in Committee. Mr. RATHBONE finds much fault with the alleged ignorance of details, which he attributes to want of contact with constituents. It is true that the great body of the Peers may not possess extraordinary legislative aptitude; but in no other assembly is business so habitually left in the hands of the leaders of parties.

Mr. RATHBONE's scheme of reform is perhaps as good as any rival plan for the constitution of a new Second Chamber. He would make all peers eligible for a seat; but he proposes that the House of Commons should, by cumulative vote, elect one-third of the Upper House for periods of fifteen years. The election would really devolve on the Ministers of the day, who are also to have the power of appointing a limited number of civil and military servants of the Crown. The Law Lords are to retain their present seats, and the total number of three hundred is to be completed by the addition of the Chairmen of the proposed County Boards. As the Boards themselves will be elected by household suffrage, it is not impossible that some of the Chairmen may be local agitators, possessing influence in their own districts, but wholly unqualified for seats in the House of Lords. It was thought rash on the part of a religious Order to embody a condemnation of all change in the well-known formula—*Sint ut sunt, aut non sint*. To the House of Lords the phrase may be applied in the form, not of a wish, but of a prophecy—*Erunt ut sunt, aut non erunt*. It is strange that Mr. RATHBONE should regard the constitution of the American Senate as a precedent for the election of a part of the Second Chamber by the House of Commons. The Senate would have been as commonplace as the House of Representatives if it had been elected by that body; but it is useless to criticize in detail a project which is only one of many plausible contrivances which might be suggested. The French Senate furnishes an instructive example of the difficulty of creating a Second Chamber under the conditions imposed by modern democracy. It is elected by three or four different methods; it includes many of the most eminent orators, of the soundest economists, of the most experienced statesmen and administrators of France; and yet when it lately rejected a Bill of secondary importance, an outcry was immediately raised for its abolition; and M. GAMBETTA, who at first defended its independence, now thinks it convenient to support some scheme of reconstruction which may ensure its absolute subservience to the more popular assembly. Mr. RATHBONE's just and eloquent eulogy on the members of one great patrician House might serve as an argument for maintaining the privileges which he proposes to destroy or to qualify. The social and political weight of an able and wealthy family derives its principal lustre from the presence of its chief in the hereditary Assembly, which in turn is largely dependent on the general respect which is felt for himself and his equals.

LORD DERBY ON THE IRISH LAND ACT.

LORD DERBY has set himself to examine calmly and candidly the probable effects of the Irish Land Bill now that it has become law, and no one can aid or prevent its passing by exaggerated hopes or fears. What does it all come to? What will it do? What will it not do? are the questions which Lord DERBY attempts to answer by the light of a clear, cold judgment and of much experience of affairs, general and Irish. He necessarily assumes, to begin with, that the Act will be allowed to work, that the decrees of the Court will be respected, and that the law will in practice give to every man what it gives him in theory. If this is assumed, Lord DERBY shows that the

landlord will lose very little. On the whole, the land is let at a low rent. A fair Court, therefore, if it does not raise rents, will not lower them; and, as it is assumed that in the future all legal obligations are to be punctually fulfilled, the mass of landlords will get the same rents paid as a matter of certainty that they now get in a very precarious and painful way. They will have no political power, but they have already lost under the Ballot the political power they once possessed; they will retain the social advantages which in a peaceful country always attach to the receipt of large revenues from a source so obvious and indisputable as land. Their incomes will indeed be larger than ever, for they will no longer be exposed to the importunities of tenants asking them to contribute towards improvements. They retain all their rights of sport, and, under this imaginary reign of law, no one will poison hounds or stop hunting with pitchforks. Their only real loss will be that of the pleasure of finding a sphere of honourable activity in the personal management of a large estate, and it is not a pleasure that the bulk of Irish landlords have had the wish or the resources to enjoy in any very great extent. There will, no doubt, be landlords who will have their rents and their incomes reduced, and who therefore will have to content themselves with the thought that a certainty of sixpence is better than the chance of a shilling. Speaking broadly, Lord DERBY is quite right in saying that the landlords would not lose if the Act was loyally carried out. He, indeed, somewhat understates his case. If we are to contrast the dismal anarchy that prevails in Ireland at present with an imaginary state of things in which every one obeyed the law, the landlord got his present rents paid to the day, enjoyed in peace his social distinction, and sported to his heart's content, he ought, if he had a spark of gratitude, to invoke blessings every evening on the heads of those good and clever men who thought of this wonderful Act which had conferred on him such inestimable benefits.

When Lord DERBY turns to the tenants he sees before him a much more gloomy prospect. The tenants are now, he says, in the position of peasant proprietors who have not paid for their land. Are they likely to thrive in such a position? Lord DERBY thinks they are not for several reasons, of which the chief are that the soil and climate of Ireland are not favourable to small farms; that the tenants will have no capital to make improvements; that the Irish farmers have a painfully slight knowledge of their business; and that they are apt to have inconveniently large families. The many would fail, and only the few would succeed. Those who failed would sell their holdings, and the purchasers would be those who thrive. Lord DERBY rightly calculates that as a pure matter of business the cultivator of an adjacent holding is the man who can afford to give the best price for the interest of an outgoing tenant. Thus in the long run the effect of the Act would be to consolidate farms, and although this would be in one way a public benefit, for the soil would produce, if Lord DERBY is right, more than it can produce under a system of small farms, all the objects which have prompted the agitation by which the Act has been gained would be defeated. It is impossible as to all this to say whether Lord DERBY is right or wrong. We are told to assume the existence of a state of things so unlike all that we see now, that we cannot realize its immediate, and still less its remoter, consequences. It is supposed that the soil is to be occupied by tenants sure of their holdings, and in return cheerfully obeying the law, rigidly fulfilling their obligations, and making a gallant and persistent effort to do their very best with the land on which they find themselves placed. If humble Irishmen are capable of undergoing this moral transformation, they might also be capable of doing more in their new and better state than Lord DERBY expects. If we are to look at the mass of landlords and omit exceptional cases, we ought also to look at the mass of tenants. There are Irish tenants who, if they had no other source of livelihood, could not in most years pay any rent at all. But the mass of Irish tenants are perfectly well able to pay their rents if they choose. The proof of this is that, according not only to Lord DERBY but also to the best authorities he has been able to consult, on every two Irish estates out of three the rent has not been raised within the last twelve or fifteen years, and the rent, until the present agitation began, was regularly paid. This is, in fact, the customary rent which Lord DERBY thinks the Court will impose as

the future rent, and which it is assumed will be paid when due by a law-abiding tenantry. What is there in the Land Act to make it more difficult for the tenant to live and pay this rent than it has been hitherto? These men, with a new moral nature, will find themselves in a new position, and this position will, at any rate, make them more, and not less, prone to do their very best for themselves and the land. As owners subject to a quit rent, they are not likely to work less hard or to take less interest in their work than they used to do when they held by a tenure which they believed, or affected to believe, was precarious. The size of their families might make emigration necessary; but these worthy, law-abiding, industrious men would be just the persons to explain to the superfluous members of their circle that they would do better to leave home and shift for themselves. They would, as Lord DERBY observes, have no capital for such expensive improvements as draining; but draining has hitherto been mainly done not with the money of the land-lords, but with money which the landlords have borrowed; and tenants who as a body obeyed the law and paid their rents would borrow for drainage as easily as the landlords have done. There is perhaps only one way in which the Land Act is prejudicial to the tenants. Foreign competition may lower the price of the main articles of Irish produce. In this case it would be disadvantageous to a tenant to be saddled during a statutory term with a rent based on prices when foreign competition was not felt, and in this respect the rigidity of the Act would tell too much in favour of the landlords.

After discussing the probable effects of the Act as it would operate if a reign of law, order, and general content were established, Lord DERBY handles the very serious preliminary question whether there is any solid reason to anticipate that this happy state of things will be seen by the present generation. In other words, will the Land Act pacify Ireland? Lord DERBY has no kind of hesitation in saying that it will not. Whether it will ever come into practical operation until those who are determined that it shall not have a chance are made to feel themselves in danger is very doubtful. But, apart from this, there is the very grave objection to all hopes of the pacificatory effects of the Land Act, that it is not what England has given, but what England will not give, that the Irish want. Lord DERBY has done his best to inform himself on this head, and all that he has seen, read, or heard, leads him to the conclusion that the bulk of the Irish will be pacified by nothing but separation from England. Their new moral nature is not going to begin to show itself until they are allowed to set up a government for themselves. As Lord DERBY pointedly says, we are at the commencement, not at the end, of a great struggle. Nothing can be more unwise than to underrate the gravity of the position in which England is thus placed. Whatever we do, we seem only to increase the anxiety of the Irish to be let go. If we humour them, and pass an Act like the Land Act, which we only justify on the ground that they are not as we are, they take this as a confession that there are inherent differences which make an enforced union odious to them. If we treat them as being like Englishmen, and give them juries and the Ballot, a democratic franchise and local government, they use these gifts as instruments for working out their end of separation. Prudence, patience, and great firmness may overcome the Irish difficulty, as they have overcome so many difficulties which English statesmen have had to encounter; but they were never more necessary, and nothing can be more illusory than the hope that we have suddenly found in the Land Act a sovereign and specific remedy for the political maladies of Ireland.

M. FERRY AND M. GAMBETTA.

THAT small portion of the French public which takes an active interest in politics is busy in speculating as to the precise date and the immediate antecedents of M. FERRY's impending resignation. That the nominal leader of the lately-elected majority is shortly to make way for a new Prime Minister no one, except the Paris Correspondent of the *Times*, seems to doubt. The only point about his retirement from his present office which is still uncertain is whether it will come before or after the meeting of the Chambers. If the question

were to be decided either by precedent or political propriety, M. FERRY would certainly choose the latter course. He might very naturally have ceased to be Prime Minister six weeks ago, because he could then have said that, as the new majority evidently belonged to another man, he should no longer profess to represent it. Instead of this, he claimed the new majority as his own, and gave no hint that the thought of resignation had so much as entered his mind. No fresh light has been cast upon the composition or wishes of the new majority since that time, and if M. FERRY now resigns without waiting for the meeting of the Chambers, he will find a very different explanation given of the step. He will be accused, and accused with much apparent reason, of desiring to escape the responsibility of the war in Tunis. Had things gone well there, it will be said, nothing would have been heard about a Ministerial reconstruction until the Chambers were again in Session. This sudden desire to leave M. GRÉVY free to send for whomsoever he chooses coincides somewhat suspiciously with the news that has lately been received from North Africa. It will be taken, at all events, to mean that M. FERRY is anxious to escape the responsibility of his own action, that he has sacrificed the Tunis expedition to considerations of political convenience, and that he does not wish to face the censure which he is certain to incur in consequence. A Minister who retires under these circumstances must be curiously indifferent to the good opinion of his countrymen. To resign office rather than challenge, or even endure, inquiry is to admit that your motives will not stand examination. If M. FERRY has anything of a case, he will naturally be anxious to lay it before the Chamber, and he can only do this to advantage by remaining Prime Minister until there has been time for his conduct to be debated. M. GRÉVY, who is understood to be scrupulous about Parliamentary proprieties, can hardly fail to take this view. Though the powers of the President of the Republic as regards the selection of Ministers are not very well ascertained, he will certainly assume that a Chamber which is so nearly a double of the old one must be held to support the Cabinet which the old Chamber supported, until it has given evidence to the contrary.

When constitutional propriety and the wishes of the Chief of the State point unmistakably to M. FERRY's retention of office until he has been displaced by a Parliamentary vote, it may seem strange that there should be so much as a suspicion that he means to anticipate such a vote by resignation. Even a Prime Minister has a right to be accounted innocent until the contrary is proved; why, then, should it be taken for granted that M. FERRY means virtually to confess his guilt by running away from trial? That is a question for French journalists to answer; all that foreign observers can do is to note the fact that this intention on the part of M. FERRY is taken for granted by many persons who profess to be well informed as to his intentions. The very day on which he is to place his office at M. GRÉVY's disposal is named, and a reason assigned why he should do it on that day and on no other. It is argued that the new Prime Minister will wish to meet Parliament as soon as his Cabinet is formed, lest some mischief in the way of intrigue should be found for the hands of idle deputies, and it is calculated that it will take about ten days to form the Cabinet. This explanation of M. FERRY's expected resignation has the fault that it only explains why it should take place at a particular time. In this limited sense it is certainly an adequate explanation. Given that M. FERRY has determined not to face the Chambers in his present office, there are good reasons why he should retire from it somewhere between the 15th and the 18th of the present month. But it leaves the question why he should retire from it at all just where it was; and before this can be answered, it must be made clear why M. GAMBETTA wishes to take office before the meeting of the Chambers rather than after. If he had not made up his mind that the time is come for him to step into M. FERRY's shoes, we may be sure that M. FERRY would not be so anxious to put his shoes off. Now there are at least two reasons why M. GAMBETTA should not wish any longer to delay taking office. The first is, that if he is in power when the decisive news comes from Tunis, he will come in for the credit of it if it is good, while he will be able to wash his hands of it if it is bad. No one can say precisely how far M. GAMBETTA has shared in the responsibility of the expedition; and since it is left to him to define his part in it, he will probably be guided by the consider-

ation whether this responsibility is glorious or inglorious. If he waits until the result is known, he runs the risk of that result being favourable, and so of M. FERRY's seeming to be thrown aside, not because he is not fit to be Prime Minister, but because M. GAMBETTA wants to be Prime Minister himself. The second reason is that, if M. FERRY's resignation is postponed until after his policy has been debated in the Chamber of Deputies, M. GAMBETTA can hardly avoid taking part in the discussion. The politician who by universal consent is to succeed the Minister whose conduct is under inquiry must give his own opinion of that conduct, and state in what respects he would have acted differently. It is easy to see why M. GAMBETTA should wish to escape this necessity. No one except himself and some members of the present Cabinet can say how far the conduct of the Tunis expedition was of his ordering, and how far of M. FERRY's. So long as there is no exhaustive debate in the Chamber the precise distribution of parts may remain unknown, and if a new Cabinet is formed before the opening of the Session an exhaustive debate may be avoided. There is very little amusement in censuring a Government which no longer exists, and it will not be possible to censure the new Government until there has been time for it to show how its policy differs from that of its predecessor.

This, however, only accounts for M. GAMBETTA's anxiety that M. FERRY should not wait to defend himself before the Chamber. What can be the motive which is expected to lead M. FERRY to the same conclusion? He, it might be thought, is under the strongest possible inducements not to evade a Parliamentary trial. Even if all the charges now current against him should be proved in every detail, he would still be better off than if he resigned in order to prevent them from being proved. In the former case he would at least have given evidence of courage, if not of statesmanship; in the latter case he would have shown himself equally deficient in both qualities. This is not the view which is taken of the situation by French politicians. They, strange to say, are of opinion that M. FERRY will better, rather than injure, his prospects by declining to answer his accusers. If, it is said, he retires from office before the Chamber meets, there will be nothing to prevent M. GAMBETTA from offering him a seat in the new Cabinet. If, on the other hand, he awaits a vote of want of confidence, and the division goes against him, M. GAMBETTA will not be able to do this. For the time, at all events, a vote of censure directed against a Ministry must be accepted as disqualifying its chief for holding office in the Ministry which follows. M. FERRY may serve under M. GAMBETTA if he runs away from a Parliamentary condemnation, but he cannot serve under him—at least, not immediately—if he remains to face a Parliamentary condemnation. As ex-Ministers are very quickly forgotten in France, M. FERRY probably thinks that it is safer not to let the chance go by. The part assigned to him in the transaction argues a low standard of political honour; but, inasmuch as no considerable organ of French opinion seems to reject the hypothesis, it must be supposed that it is a standard in which average French opinion sees nothing discreditable.

LORD O'HAGAN AT DUBLIN.

THE Social Science Association has for some time past become dull and useful. In its early years it was neither. The extravagances which found their natural place at its meetings yielded an annual crop of amusement, and even the enthusiasts who paraded there did not dream that the experiments they suggested would ever be seriously tried. Now, the Congresses mostly address themselves to points in which the law is admitted to need amendment, and the President's address bears a painfully close resemblance to a QUEEN'S SPEECH. Lord O'HAGAN's survey of the field which the Association has made its own was fair and comprehensive. He avoided awkward questions with all the care which high office renders necessary, and contrived to fill his allotted space without betraying any sense of the irony of fortune in placing a meeting called together to consider amendments of the law in a country in which law has ceased to be of any account. It is doubtful, however, whether under any circumstances a conspicuous party politician can be a good President of a Social Science Congress. He is bound by his posi-

tion not to hint that anything for which his colleagues, past or present, are responsible is other than perfect; and, however convinced he may be of the need for further changes, he must not betray his conviction in words. Lord O'HAGAN moved as easily under these fetters as it is possible for any one to do, but the fetters were still there. They were especially visible in the parts of his address which bore upon education. Lord O'HAGAN is an Irishman and a Roman Catholic, and in neither character can he feel any genuine liking either for the Intermediate Education Act or for the foundation of the Royal University. Religious prejudices in one political party and irreligious prejudices in the other have combined to withhold from Irishmen the kind of education which the majority of the nation desires. Conservatives have disliked the notion of endowing Popery; Liberals have disliked the notion of endowing any creed whatever. The consequence has been that secondary and university education have hardly existed for Irish Roman Catholics. Trinity College and the Queen's Colleges have been frequented mainly by Irish Protestants. The object of the Intermediate Education Act and of the Royal University is to amend this state of things in fact, without amending it in form. Party exigencies have made it impossible, or have been supposed to make it impossible, to give Roman Catholic parents in Ireland the same advantages which have long been enjoyed by Anglican parents in England and by Presbyterian parents in Scotland. In the two latter cases the desire to bring up their children in their own religion has been esteemed a virtue; in the former it has been treated merely as a proof that those who profess to feel it set no genuine value on education. Perhaps if leading politicians on both sides had had the courage to paint this flagrant inconsistency in its true colours, Englishmen might by degrees have awaked to it; but, instead of this, leading politicians on both sides have agreed to support one another in making believe that Irish education must be regulated by one principle, and English and Scotch education by another. The Intermediate Education Act and the Royal University are attempts made, so to say, under the rose to give Irish Roman Catholic youths an education which their parents' consciences will allow them to accept for their sons. The State carefully shuts its eyes to the destination of the money which it pays for this purpose. It refuses to know anything about the religion of the youths to whom it gives scholarships and fellowships; it only knows that they have passed a given examination. This is, no doubt, a great improvement on the system under which Roman Catholics could not hold scholarships or fellowships even by passing an examination. But it is open to objections which no one is better qualified than Lord O'HAGAN to set out with all the just weight that belongs to them. If he were not, never had been, and never hoped to be, in office, the Social Science Congress would have been greatly the gainer.

It is natural that the author of the existing Irish jury system should think well of his own work, and that a considerable part of Lord O'HAGAN's address should have been devoted to a defence of the Act which he passed in 1871. It is fair to remember that the deserved discredit into which trial by jury in Ireland has lately fallen has nothing to do with any particular method of choosing juries. It is useless to try to combine incompatible advantages. There are merits in trial by jury, there are merits in trial without a jury; but the merits are not identical. The virtue of trial by jury is the popular satisfaction with the result of the trial which springs from the popular character of the body by which the verdict has been given. The virtue of trial without jury is the possibility which it affords of obtaining a really capable and instructed tribunal. Great fault has been found with the Jury Act of 1871 because it took away from the sheriff the power of selection, and made the payment of rates a sufficient qualification for a juror. There are times, no doubt, when these two changes will almost necessarily work badly. There might be some chance of getting a just verdict, even in an agrarian case, if a high qualification had kept out most of the class which is actuated by passion or fear, and if the sheriff had kept out the remainder. It would be far better, however, to suspend trial by jury altogether than to deprive it beforehand of the features which constitute its sole claim to public confidence. A condemnation by a Special Commission would not excite a tenth part of the sympathy for the criminal which would be excited by a condemnation by a packed jury, or even

by a jury from which every one of the same rank with the criminal had been rigidly excluded. When the popular feeling about crime is healthy, the verdict of a jury will seldom do any real injustice. When the popular feeling about crime is unhealthy, trial by jury has ceased for the time to be a satisfactory or proper method of arriving at the truth. What Ireland wants at the present moment is, not any tinkering with the method by which juries are chosen, but a frank recognition of the fact that no method of choosing juries can be satisfactory in agrarian cases which does not make them cease to be juries except in name. When things have come to this pass, the remedy is to be sought in a suspension of trial by jury until it has once more become possible for juries that are juries in something else than in name to be trusted with the trial of prisoners charged with agrarian crimes. It is not to be expected that the meeting at Dublin will give a very certain sound upon a question of this kind. In theory, every Irishman must be assumed to wish that a man who has shot a landlord, resisted the police, or taken violent possession of land to which he has ceased to have any title should have prompt punishment meted out to him. In practice, the sympathy entertained for the cause to which these acts are supposed to minister makes a difference in the feeling with which the execution of the law is regarded, and this distinction may be expected to be visible even in a Social Science Congress.

It is inevitable, perhaps, that at a Social Science Congress held in Dublin something should be said in behalf of the movement which is to give Ireland manufactures. But Lord O'HAGAN would have done a greater service to his countrymen if he had warned them that such a movement is predestined to failure. There are countries in which the question whether manufactures shall or shall not exist on a great scale is determined by legislation; there are others in which it is determined by nature. Ireland belongs to the latter class, and a greater injury could hardly be done her than to invite capital to work up imported raw material with imported coal and imported machinery.

COVENTRY.

THANKS to Lady Godiva, the city of Coventry is more generally known than most provincial towns of the same degree of importance. The knowledge of it possessed by most people is, however, probably confined to the legend of Earl Leofric's lady, and the form of Boycotting known as sending the victim to Coventry, together with some vague ideas about seven spires and an accompanying multiplicity of churches. To such persons it may perhaps be disappointing to know that only three spires are now standing, that the legend of Godiva is probably quite mythical, being mentioned by no authority earlier than Matthew of Westminster, and that the episode of Peeping Tom—

low churl, compact of thankless earth,
The fatal byword of all years to come—

is a late addition to the legend. In spite, however, of the destruction of ancient monuments which has been wrought by time, "restoration" and the necessities of trade and manufacture, Coventry still possesses much that is of the highest interest to antiquaries and students of architecture. Beside the three beautiful churches, and St. Mary's Hall, one of the finest guildhalls in existence, the city is rich in examples of domestic architecture of the best periods, especially of the early part of the sixteenth century. The town is fortunate, too, in its situation. The country near, especially to the south, in the direction of Warwick and Stoneleigh, is perhaps the loveliest in the county. On the Stoneleigh road, a mile or so from the city, lies Stivichall, with its beautiful grange, and the little church built in forty years by one man's labour. The road to Warwick, with its avenue of oaks, its grassy rides, and the stretches of fern-clad common by the wayside, is conspicuous, even among Warwickshire roads, for its beauty. As one approaches Coventry by this road, the two tall spires which stand on high ground in the middle of the town form a landmark for miles, except where the view is hidden by the elms that meet overhead. The entrance to the town on this side is very fine, in spite of some ugly modern buildings. Most of the houses are roofed with red tiles, and the two spires, prominent in every view of the town, rise over the cluster of low buildings which intervenes, with no rival object to take away from their appearance of immense height. Leaving behind the station and the row of stuccoed villas with which modern taste has disfigured the approach to it, we pass the old house where George Eliot went to school, and the little inn where the figure of Peeping Tom looks down from a window at the street-corner. In some parts of the town the old stands side by side with the new. A tumble-down timbered house leans against a magnificent new gin-palace, fragments of the city wall are placarded with the advertisements of bicycle manufacturers, and a fireplace lined with rare Dutch tiles

accompanies hair-brushing by machinery in a barber's shop. Elsewhere there are whole streets which still retain their old-world appearance. The houses are of all heights, their roofs pitched high or low according to the builder's fancy. They stand at various angles with each other and with the line of the road, and encroach upon the footpath in a way calculated to vex the souls of municipal authorities. The beams and gables are often enriched with fine carving, and many have suffered little except in the mutilation of the finials, which has been so general that in some modern reproductions of the style the finials have been copied in their mutilated form, and, instead of rising above the apex of the gable, have been cut short and covered with coping tiles. One of the most picturesque of the old streets is Butcher Row, which stands close to the churches and in suggestive proximity to the old Bull-ring. Here the houses seem to be tumbling about in all directions, and are kept together in defiance of the laws of gravity by the strength of the materials and the excellence of the workmanship. In a narrow lane which leads into Cross Cheeping the buildings on each side slope so much as almost to meet overhead, and remind one forcibly of a street in the Arab quarter of Cairo, where "tres pateat cœli spatium, non amplius, ulnas." The line of the city walls can be easily traced in many parts, especially on the south side, where the city has never passed beyond its ancient limits. Here a footpath skirts the boundary line, and rows of cottages, raised above the foundations of the wall, look southward over acres of garden and orchard. Most of the gates have disappeared, but one remains on the north-east at the end of Cook Street, and the gate-house of another is still inhabited. A fine gateway which once belonged to the monastery of the White Friars still leads from the lane called after them into Much Park Street.

Of course the interest of the town centres around the churches of St. Michael and Trinity, which are too well known to need any detailed description. The beautiful red sandstone of which the tower and spire of St. Michael's are built adds the charm of colour to that of form, and the crumbling of the stone has given the beauty of age without as yet endangering the safety of the structure. Of the ruins of the Cathedral and Priory to the north of the two churches very little remains. Some foundations have been excavated and exposed to view in front of the buildings of the Blue Coat School, and a fragment of wall has been cleverly built into the new fabric, instead of being ruthlessly pulled down to make way for it, as usually happens in such cases. A great part of the site of the Priory is now occupied by a row of large red brick houses, built for the most part in the early part of last century, when Coventry, after a century and a half of depression, was beginning to recover through the introduction of the silk trade. No doubt further excavations would bring to light many interesting remains which lie buried beneath the trim lawns sloping down from the back of these houses. St. Mary's Hall stands on the south side of St. Michael's Church. Its history is closely connected with that of the city guilds, which were founded mainly in the reigns of Edward III. and Richard II. The hall was first built about the middle of the fourteenth century, by the guild from which it takes its name. As it now stands, it dates from the close of the same century, when the more important guilds were united. Though the Trinity Guild gave its name to the new society, the hall, after the rebuilding, retained its original title. It is fully described in Sharp's *Antiquities of Coventry*. Among its most interesting contents is the famous tapestry which has lately been exhibited at South Kensington. It hangs under the north window, and illustrates the close connexion between the city and Henry VI., who was a member of the Trinity Guild. The tapestry is in a state of excellent preservation; but it is unfortunate that the excessive zeal of the Reformers should have led them to cut out the representation of God the Father which originally occupied the centre of the chief compartment, and to substitute the present poor figure of Justice. The hall contains portraits of the English sovereigns from Elizabeth to George IV.; but perhaps the most interesting picture of all is one which may with great probability be ascribed to Sir Antonio More. It has generally, but no doubt wrongly, been called a portrait of Queen Mary. About the treasures contained in the muniment-room volumes might be written. The collection of documents is one of the most important in England, and among the MSS. may be mentioned the charter granted in 1153 by Earl Ranulph, the city Leet-book, and several account-books belonging to the corporation and to various of the guilds. There are also two volumes of letters addressed to the corporation on various occasions—one, from Queen Anne Boleyn, announces the birth of the Princess Elizabeth; another, from Elizabeth herself, charges the mayor with the safe keeping of Mary, Queen of Scots. Open the volumes where one may, there is sure to be something of interest in the history of the city or of the country at large.

Close to St. Mary's Hall is one of the most beautiful timbered houses in Coventry. The carving of the beams and gables is exquisite; but unhappily this is the only one left standing of a whole row of houses, which were pulled down some years since to make room for various modern buildings. The carved gables of the demolished houses are engraved in Pugin's work on the subject, and are among the finest examples contained in it. In the same work may be found examples taken from Ford's Hospital, in Greyfriars Lane, which shows, on a small scale, all that is best in the architecture of the period. It is in the form of a quadrangle, and is entered from a mean and dirty

street by a low archway, which leads into a tiny court only a few feet wide. In the window of the little room which was once the chapel are two curious figures, representing the Virgin and St. John. The building, small as it is, is quite equal in interest to the far better known Leicester Hospital at Warwick. Of similar character, but far larger and rather less beautiful, is the Bablake Hospital, at the west end of the town, where there is a fine portrait of John Hales, the founder of the Grammar School, probably by Holbein. St. John's Church, which stands to the south-west of this hospital, and close to the site of Spongate, has lately been restored, with considerable benefit to the interior, at any rate. The floor, which had for some inscrutable reason been raised several feet, is now lowered to its original level, and the bases of the pillars have been uncovered. The church is both beautiful and curious. The choir has a northward bend, as is also the case in St. Michael's, and the west wall is not at right angles with the two adjoining it. Several of the pillars, too, are very much out of the perpendicular. The church was founded soon after the formation of St. John's Guild, in the reign of Edward III. It is impossible here even to mention all the buildings which are worthy of admiration and study. Two more must, however, be named—the Grammar School, once the church of St. John's Hospital, noteworthy for the rare and beautiful tracery of its east window; and the old Palace in Earl Street, which has been sadly mutilated by the base uses to which it has been put, though it still possesses many features of interest. A curious fact about it is that there appear to be no means of ascertaining who were its original owners. The name of the street in which it stands suggests their rank, but nothing more is known of them.

In spite, or perhaps in consequence, of the vast wealth of material available for the purpose, no adequate history of Coventry has yet been written. Those best qualified to deal with the subject have confined themselves for the most part to monographs on the various branches of it; and to their labours, especially to those of Thomas Sharp the antiquary, the future historian will owe very much. Dugdale's work is, of course, extremely valuable; but as its author was writing the history of Warwickshire, not of Coventry, it does not go into the subject with the minuteness which its importance deserves. At the very outset the student is met by a difficulty, in the uncertainty which attaches to the origin of the name. The most obvious explanation of the first two syllables is that they refer to a convent which undoubtedly existed in very early times; but as the last syllable is of course *tre*, the British word for town, some authorities prefer to regard the remainder of the word as a modification of *Cune*, which they take to be the ancient name of the river Shireburn. However this may be, a nunnery certainly existed in the time of Canute which had a great repute on account of the virtues of St. Osburg, who had been its abbess. It was destroyed in 1016 by Canute and Edric, and we hear no more of Coventry until the reign of Edward the Confessor, when Leofric, Earl of Mercia, the husband of Godiva, founded the monastery which afterwards became so famous. This Leofric was descended from an ancestor of the same name, who was Earl of Chester in the reign of Ethelbald, King of Mercia. He was one of the most powerful nobles of the time, and it was his granddaughter Alghitha whom Harold II. was compelled for State reasons to marry. Another granddaughter was married to her kinsman Ranulph, and from them were descended Robert Bruce, King of Scotland, and Dervogil or Devorgilla, the wife of John Balliol, whose name is held in pious memory in the college which her husband founded at Oxford. The monastery, which was dedicated to St. Peter and St. Osburg, soon became very wealthy; it possessed rich manors in various counties, among others that of Eaton in Cheshire, while among its relics the most precious was an arm of St. Augustine of Hippo. It enjoyed, too, the privilege of being subject to no diocesan bishop; but this privilege was lost in the reign of William II., when Robert of Limesey, Bishop of Chester, obtained from the King the custody of the monastery, and by the Pope's authority moved his seat from Chester to Coventry. This was the beginning of misfortunes for the monks. The name of Abbot became extinct, "in regard that the episcopal dignity therein overtook it," as Dugdale says. The fabric of the building fell into decay, and the monks were kept in strict submission by the bishop. Several successive bishops lived here, and even dropped the name of Lichfield from their title, until it was agreed that the two places should choose their bishop in turn, precedence in style episcopal being given to Coventry. In the wars of Maud and Stephen, the Earl of Chester took the side of Maud; and Robert Marmion, of Tamworth, being an enemy of the Earl, expelled the monks and fortified the church. His ignominious fate is referred to by the Abbess in Sir Walter Scott's poem. He fell into a trench which he had dug for the enemy, and while in this helpless position he was killed by a common soldier. Ranulph, the Earl of Chester just mentioned, appears to have taken the part of the monks, and of the town generally, against the bishop. In 1153 he granted to the monks a charter, which has already been referred to, authorizing them to have two carts always going to and fro in his woods to carry timber for repairs and fuel. He also granted various privileges to the townsmen. He incurred the enmity of Walter, Bishop of Chester, and died excommunicate. The quarrel between monks and bishop came to a climax in the reign of Richard I., when the monks were expelled for assaulting Hugh Novant, their bishop. The assault, however, seems to have been committed under great provocation, for Hugh afterwards died

repentant at the abbey of Bec, having condemned himself to Purgatory till the day of judgment for the wrongs done to the monks, who were restored in 1198.

From this time the fortunes of the monastery began to mend. The existing charters were confirmed and enlarged in the reign of Henry III. by the then Earl of Chester, who died without male issue. After his death the lordship of Coventry came by marriage into the possession of Roger de Montalt, who sold it to the monks of Coventry to raise money to equip him for the Third Crusade. He reserved to himself only the manor-house and park of Cheylesmore, and the religious house of the Friars Minors, which had been lately founded. No doubt the latter exception was intended to protect the Franciscans from the enmity of the English monks, by whom they were hated as emissaries and agents of the Pope. In spite of the settlement of Franciscans among them, the monks remained faithful to the King, for we find that they suffered much at the hands of De Montfort and the barons, whose headquarters were at Kenilworth, about six miles distant. The monastery, however, prospered, and the welfare of the town was further promoted by Royal favour. Robert de Montalt, being without heirs male, entailed the manor of Cheylesmore upon Queen Isabel, with remainder to John of Eltham. As the latter died before Isabel, the manor came into the possession of Edward III., who settled it upon the Black Prince, and it is from this connexion that the three feathers appear in the city arms. Great privileges and exemptions were accorded to the citizens, and in 1346 the King granted them a charter of incorporation, the first mayor being elected in the following year. Soon afterwards the city walls were built, and in 1373 the tower of St. Michael's Church was begun by William and Adam Botoner, each of whom was twice mayor of the city. It is recorded in some copies of the city annals that a brass plate was found in the church bearing this inscription:—

William and Adam built the tower,
Ann and Mary built the spire,
William and Adam built the church,
Ann and Mary built the quire.

It is, however, extremely doubtful whether any such inscription ever existed, and Thomas Sharp, whose opinion deserves the greatest possible respect, only mentions the tradition to discredit it. It is highly improbable that the Botoners did more than build the tower and spire. Richard II. made various grants to the town, giving stone from his park for the building of the walls, and granting to the corporation the waste land all round the town to pay for their maintenance. About this time the commons of Coventry were constantly rising, and on one occasion they pelted the mayor with loaves when he went to hold the assize of bread in St. Mary's Hall, because the bakers had not observed the assize, and the mayor had not punished them. John Onley, who was mayor in 1396, is recorded to have been the first Englishman born in Calais after its capture. His father, a Coventry man, was the standard-bearer of Edward III., and his son was born immediately after the taking of the town. He was twice mayor of Calais, and twice filled the same office in his father's native town. In 1404 Henry IV. held the Parliament known as *Parliamentum inductum* at Coventry, and showed great favour to the city, though his associations with the place can scarcely have been pleasant, for it was here that he was sentenced to banishment by Richard II. on the breaking off of his duel with the Duke of Norfolk. Henry V. had no time to do more than confirm the city charters. At the end of his reign the commons rose, and destroyed the Royal gardens at Cheylesmore, but the cause of the rising is not recorded.

Thirty years later the crowning favour was conferred on Coventry by Henry VI., who constituted the city with the surrounding villages an independent county, the bailiffs of the city being sheriffs of the county. In 1453 the King held here the *Parliamentum diabolicum*, by which Richard Duke of York and his son Edward were attainted. In spite of its Lancastrian antecedents Edward IV. still favoured the city, and in the seventh year of his reign spent Christmas here with the Queen. Soon afterwards came the temporary reaction caused by the unpopularity of the Woodvilles, and in 1469 Earl Rivers and his son were executed on Gosford Green to the east of the city. On the return of Edward to England in 1471, the Earl of Warwick held Coventry against him, and after the battle of Tewkesbury the King came and took away the mayor's sword, and seized the liberties of the city. These were restored, however, on payment of 500 marks, and Edward, always politic, sent his son on a visit to Coventry, where he was well received. The city annals tell us, with some pride, that he stood godfather to the mayor's child, and received a present of a cup and 100*l*. He was followed by the King, who kept the feast of St. George at his manor of Cheylesmore. Richard III. found time in his brief reign to visit Coventry at the feast of Corpus Christi, and to see the miracle plays for which the city was famous acted by the guilds; and Henry VII., anxious to gain the goodwill of the most important town in the midland counties, went after the battle of Bosworth and lodged at the house of the mayor, Robert Onley—a descendant, no doubt, of the standard-bearer of Edward III., who has been mentioned above. The mayor was knighted, and the King received the traditional gift of a cup and 100*l*. In this and the following reign some of the most important of the city charities were founded. In 1497 the mayor was Thomas Bond, who founded the hospital called after him. In his mayoralty Prince Arthur visited Coventry, and was received with great rejoicings. The year

1521 is memorable for the mayoralty of Thomas White, the city's greatest benefactor, who left sums of money to be expended in gifts to the poor, and in free loans to enable young men to begin business for themselves after serving their apprenticeship. Twenty years later the Cross was built, by Sir William Holles, on the site of another which had been pulled down in 1510; but this was the last important work undertaken in Coventry for many years. The dissolution of the monasteries almost ruined the town. It is true that a great deal of the property of the monastery was bought at a very cheap rate by the corporation and by private benefactors; but, as Dugdale tells us, "It was neither the lustre of their beautiful cross, nor all those large and easy acquisitions that did any whit balance the loss this city sustained by the ruins of that great and famous monastery, and other the religious houses which had so lately preceded." Trade fell off, and thousands of the inhabitants left the city. In the reign of Edward VI., John Hales, the founder of the grammar school, represented to the Duke of Somerset that only about three thousand inhabitants remained in the city, whereas within memory the population had been fifteen thousand. After the dissolution the site of the monastery was sold, and the building itself, with the cathedral, demolished, in spite of the entreaties of the Bishop.

For some time to come we hear little of Coventry. The Duke of Suffolk attempted to involve the citizens in Wyatt's rebellion, and, it seems, with some prospect of success; but the more prudent party prevailed, and the arrival of the Earl of Huntingdon at Warwick compelled the Duke to retire. On the occasion of Queen Elizabeth's visit to the city in 1565 the Recorder referred to the "lamentable ruin and decay thereof." He had good ground for complaint. The plague had been very deadly in Coventry during the previous year, and the clothing business was falling into decay, without the introduction of any new industry; but it does not appear that the Queen's visit did anything to mend matters. In the following year the city received a very doubtful mark of Royal favour in being chosen as a place of confinement for Mary Queen of Scots, who was imprisoned in the mayor's parlour. Three years later she was again at Coventry, when she was placed under the care of the Earls of Shrewsbury and Huntingdon at the Bull Inn, on the site of which the barracks now stand. Coventry seems to have escaped all connexion with the Gunpowder Plot, though Dunchurch was the appointed rendezvous of the conspirators, and Combe Abbey was one of their places of meeting. On the discovery of the plot the conspirators attempted to seize the Princess Elizabeth, who was then at Combe, but she was safely conveyed into Coventry. In the following reign the city was greatly harassed by the oppressive exactions of the King, and we find in the records that in 1635 "a silver-gilt bowl, 59 ounces, was given to my lord Bishop for his pains in settling ship-money." At this time the city retained its splendid appearance, though its material prosperity was in a great measure gone. Taylor the Water Poet, in a curious account of a summer's tour through the Midland counties, undertaken in 1639, describes Coventry as "a faire, famous, sweet, and ancient city, so walled about with such strength and neatnesse as no city in England may compare with it." He also suggests *trety covent* as the derivation of the city's name; but his authority in philological questions is, of course, not worth very much. Mindful of their former wrongs, the citizens refused in 1642 to admit the King's army within the walls, though they expressed their willingness to welcome the King himself. The Cavaliers assaulted the town, and effected a breach in the walls; but the citizens stoutly maintained the breach, until they were relieved and the siege raised by the arrival of Lord Brooke with a cavalry force and the foot regiments of Hollis and Hampden. This took place two days before the King set up his standard at Nottingham. Twenty years afterwards this repulse was avenged by the demolition of the walls of Coventry, which had stood for more than three hundred years.

The subsequent history of Coventry offers few features of interest. The silk trade was introduced into the town early in the eighteenth century, and, with the watch manufacture, restored to a great extent its fallen fortunes. The French Treaty of Commerce again seemed to threaten the town with ruin, but the period of extreme depression passed away; new industries have been introduced, and perhaps a new term of prosperity may be associated with the manufacture of the bicycle.

COCKNEY SPORT.

'ARRY has always been a sporting man; his great ambition now urges him to be a sportsman. It is no longer enough for him to back horses whose names he knows not how to pronounce, and to risk the till on favourites which he has never seen. The mild excitement of glove-fights and of clandestine badger-baiting on Sunday mornings has begun to pall on 'Arry. He has read so much about fox-hunting in the erudite works of Ouida, and about coursing in the sporting papers, that he has determined to make acquaintance with water and with timber, with bull-finches and with raspers. 'Arry, in short, would a-hunting go. The demand, as political economists assure us, generates the supply; and the enterprising lessees of the Alexandra Palace have provided 'Arry with sport of the most suitable character. The following advertisement, addressed to Cockney sportsmen very

degenerate from good old Jorrocks, has appeared in some of the daily papers:—

THE HORN of the HUNTER will be heard on the HILL of MUSWELL TO-MORROW and every TUESDAY and SATURDAY. The ALEXANDRA PALACE FOX-HOUNDS will meet at 10.30 each Morning. Season Subscription, 5*l.* 5*s.* One day, 10*s.* 6*d.* "Do not be"

OUT OF THE HUNT.

What is called a "rehearsal" of the amusement of fox-hunting, as practised in an area of two hundred and fifty wire-fenced acres, was given a few days ago at the Alexandra Palace. A bag-fox, apparently a tame one, was turned out, and pursued by "some of the leading tradesmen of Holloway," who are reported to have looked somewhat uncomfortable in their saddles. A single fence of three feet in height had been erected, but the local sportsmen preferred to take a circuitous route and avoid this obstacle. The poor wretch of a fox took refuge in some suburban grove of laurels when he was tired of racing round his limited enclosure, and there he was ingloriously slain by a pack of thirteen couple of hounds, which are said to have been recently purchased from the Quorn. These discarded animals have been taught to follow a drag in and out among the shrubberies of the Alexandra Palace. Tuesday was the real opening day of the Palace Hunt, and about twenty horsemen met between the building which is occupied by a panorama of the siege of Sebastopol and the offices of the Company. The beginning of the sport was comparatively legitimate. A drag had been laid, and the Cockney sportsmen had their choice of leaping or of evading hurdles and water jumps, skirting the Colney Hatch road, and dashing past the primæval forests of The Grove. No one has any right to object to the local equestrians' desire to take exercise in this way, and doubtless the suburban air is healthier than the atmosphere of a riding school. But after the pursuit of the drag came the far more feverish excitement of a "real fox hunt." A tame animal was let out of its bag, and showed no desire to flee from the face of man. The bag-fox merely sat down and contemplated the varied attractions of the Alexandra Palace. Having exhausted these delights, the poor creature crept into a shrubbery, and, having passed a bad night in the bag, prepared to go to sleep in a thicket "just in front of the central arch of the Palace." As he showed no signs of leaving this insecure retreat, the hounds were sent into the bushes, and slew the quarry ingloriously. The crowd gathered round, and eagerly watched the hounds as they devoured the poor sleepy bag-fox, butchered to make a cockney holiday.

The historian of the Crawley family mentions that the younger Rawdon, in his boyhood, could conceive of no sport more noble and manly than ratting in a barn. Ratting in a barn is certainly a more natural and honourable pursuit than watching the worrying of a tame fox in a laurel grove. It is sufficiently plain that the real attraction at the Alexandra Palace is not the riding, nor even the display of skill shown by the avoidance of hurdles, but the brutal part of hunting with which sportsmen could most happily dispense. The holiday crowd of gazers like to see a worry, to watch a poor brute taken at advantage, and destroyed by powerful foes. People who love to look on while women are fired out of guns at Music Halls, and while children risk their necks on the trapeze, are naturally charmed to behold a tame fox torn piecemeal. These sportsmen are cultivating a habit of mind which will soon enable them to stand by, as diverted amateurs, when a man cuts his wife to pieces, or a crowd of roughs kick a stranger to death.

The Alexandra Palace fox-hunt, if it has been correctly described, is perhaps the very lowest form of sport which has yet been discovered in an age of sport made popular and easy. We used to think that it was impossible to fall below the level of the Rosshire chase, in which the fox arrived in a bag by the 10.45, and the hounds came on in a train at noon, while the wire fences prevented any attempt to follow the hunt. But the sportsmen engaged in that pursuit did not, at least, shut up their bag-fox in an area of two hundred and fifty acres. On the whole, the Kempton Park Coursing Meeting seems to afford a closer parallel to the sport at the Alexandra Palace. Coursing is at no time and in no way the most humane of sports. It is best when it is, as it used to be, quite natural—when farmers take the greyhounds out over an open tract of country, and course such hares as they may happen to find. Here the hares know their ground intimately well, and are in the prime of health and natural training. Coursing is less natural, and therefore is less of the nature of sport, when hares are driven in from a large surrounding district, as in the great contests like that for the Waterloo Cup. Third in the scale come the enclosed grounds, like Gosforth Park, but even here the hares—the imported hares—have a chance, if they are left long enough in the place to know the nature of the country and of the escape. One old Irish hare is said to have been coursed seventeen times last year, and to have got clean away after all. But at Kempton Park, an enclosed place, it is said (by a contemporary) that "many of the hares had been on the ground but a few hours, and, consequently, knew nothing of their surroundings; while they were stiff and cramped from their confinement during a long journey by rail, the ground was so narrow that they had no chance of escape. Consequently on the first day only two hares were not killed by the greyhounds, and they were afterwards found dead." If this report be correct, the performances at Kempton Park far outdo the enjoyments of the Alexandra Palace. It is not a mere couple of foxes a week that are chopped in

a suburban shrubbery, but a whole crowd of tired bewildered bag-hares that are turned out for the pursuit of greyhounds, and to be instruments of betting for sporting gents. That is what modern coursing has come to be. We may be charged with sickly sentimentalism, but we confess to no great liking for the sport in itself. The odds against the hare are rather too great. One thinks of Shakespeare's description of hare-hunting:—

By this, poor Wat, far off upon a hill,
Stands on his hinder legs with list'ning ear,
To hearken if his foes pursue him still.
Anon their loud alarms he doth hear.
And now his grief may be compared well
To one sore sick that hears the passing bell.
Then shalt thou see the dew-bedabbled wretch
Turn and return, indenting with the way.
Each envious briar his weary legs doth scratch,
Each shadow makes him stop, each murmur stay.

To be sure "poor Wat's" troubles are over sooner when he is hustled out of a railway into a wire-enclosed space of heath.

Sport is respectable and admirable just in proportion to its arduousness and difficulty, and to the knowledge which it should demand of the haunts and habits of animals. A man sets his walking powers and his cunning against those of the stag, his skill against the caution of the salmon, his trained eye and ready hand against the wild flight of the grouse. This is all very well, and, so pursued, sport is the most healthful and delightful training for the serious hard work of life. It requires a minute knowledge and careful observation of nature and of the habits of birds and beasts. But the essential character of sport is deliberately ruined by modern contrivances. We try to make sport easy, instead of hard, and to make a knowledge of the habits of hunted creatures quite unnecessary. Pheasants are artificially reared in millions. Partridges are crowded into the fewest possible fields. Grouse are driven, and the excellent sport of the moors becomes a kind of superior pigeon-shooting. Even stags are driven, that so-called sportsmen may fire at random among hinds and fawns, and be enabled to brag of the heads they have secured without distress or difficulty. As to fox-hunting and coursing, the managers of Kempton Park and of the Alexandra Palace have shown the way to make these sports easy and safe. We have not yet succeeded in taming salmon, but probably the use of dynamite and rake-hooks will become more and more popular, and will be unblushingly practised whenever the water is low. In short, modern sport is degenerating into organized poaching, in which nothing is considered but the easiest way of making a big bag or basket. We expect soon to read that the Duke of X, with Lady So-and-so, had a capital day with dynamite on this or that river or loch, and "brought to bank" seventy salmon, beside three hundred grise and sea-trout. Sport of that sort would be no more than a rational extension of the practices of driving deer and coursing bewildered bag-hares. It would be as easy to bet on the results of angling with dynamite as on those of Cockney coursing. In the off-season noble sportsmen might amuse themselves like Signor Paglia, who has been shooting swallows at Battiferro, near Bologna. The Signor took six breech-loaders to the ground, and killed 2,186 swallows in the course of the day. When swallows take to sitting in long rows on railings and telegraph-wires, it would be even more easy, and therefore more in the character of modern sport, to pot them. The President of the Bologna Shooting Club, who is said to have applauded Signor Paglia, should certainly, now that the swallows are departing, come to England, hunt at the Alexandra Palace, and course at Kempton Park.

THE PARIS ELECTRICAL EXHIBITION.

IN a former article we explained that the Electrical Congress had settled the question of the international standards of electrical measurement. We may now give the nomenclature of the standards adopted. The Volt is the unit of electromotive force, and the Ohm that of resistance, both keeping their old values as well as their old names. The unit of current is to be called the Ampère, and is the current given by one Volt acting through a resistance of one Ohm—in fact, it is the unit of current hitherto known as the Weber. The reasons for this change of name will of course remain in obscurity until the proceedings of the Congress are made public. The quantity of electricity conveyed per second by a current of one Ampère is now to be called one Coulomb; and the unit of electrostatic capacity which remains the same as before—the Farad—is connected with the other units by the formulae that one Coulomb in a Farad gives one Volt, or that, if a condenser of one Farad capacity be charged by an electromotive force of one Volt, it will contain one Coulomb. As to the defining of a mercury column of the resistance of one Ohm, we fancy that it has been of most value as a piece of diplomacy at the Congress; when defined, such a standard will be troublesome to make, and by no means easy to use. We venture to think that for scientific investigation, the usual German silver resistance coils will always be used as at present, except in cases where for very delicate work it becomes necessary to go to the expense of employing coils made of the platinum silver alloy used for the standard B.A. unit coils. For practical work probably coils of copper will soon be made at a low price and of quite sufficient accuracy; for, just as a grocer has no need of a delicate chemical balance, and does not observe the height of the barometer and the reading of the thermometer every time he

weighs out a pound of sugar, so the electrical engineer, in measuring the resistance of a line wire or of a coil, is generally content if he can depend upon his instruments giving results accurate within a small range of probable error. And, as measurements of resistances are generally made by Wheatstone's bridge, by which the resistance to be found is given by the proportions which the unknown resistance and three known resistances bear to each other, it is evident that even a rather large error in these known resistances will introduce but a small one in the result.

Some accidents have unfortunately happened in the Exhibition, which will, no doubt, be taken advantage of to raise a "scare" about electric lighting and the transmission of energy by electricity. It has become well known now that several fires have arisen at the Palais de l'Industrie; but, if we examine into the causes which have produced them, we shall see that they need no more raise uneasiness about electric lighting than the burning of a house by allowing a naked gas-burner to swing against the curtains of a bed need cause us to reject gas lighting as frightfully dangerous, or than the fact that an old steam-boiler, designed to work at 50 pounds per square inch pressure, has exploded when worked at 150 pounds per square inch, need make us decline to use steam-engines. Thus one fire was caused by allowing an arc light to burn without any means for preventing the flakes of glowing carbon, which always split off from the electrodes in a greater or less quantity, according to the quality of the carbons, from falling on to a wooden floor; and others have occurred from the overheating of conducting wires, caused either by their being too thin, or by the two conductors of one machine making contact, this last class of accidents having been entirely caused by hasty work executed by unskilled men. The quantity of heat generated per second in a conductor of known resistance by a current of known measurement, and hence the highest temperature to which that conductor can be raised, is readily calculated, so that in any permanent system this danger of overheating can easily be avoided. Further, the loss of energy due to using conductors of too low resistance is so great that electrical engineers are inclined to erect conductors, or "leads," as they are technically called, of less resistance than is absolutely necessary rather than to put up leads likely to cause danger from overheating. The danger from contact of wires is hardly to be considered in a well-planned permanent system. We may also take into account in discussing these accidents the fact that the lighting systems are competing one with another at the Exhibition, so that if any lamp appeared less brilliant than its neighbours, there would be instant temptation to force up its illuminating power by increasing the speed of the driving engine, and so increasing the current. These fires may serve a good purpose by forcing upon the minds of "practical men" the necessity of measurements and the utter uselessness of rule of thumb and "experience of twenty years, sir"—the two tools and weapons of the hopelessly ignorant, blind, obstinate, vaguely speculative class of men who love to give themselves this title.

Whilst on the subject of danger, we may say a word or two about danger to life and health from shocks accidentally received. There have been some cases of death within the last few years, but these have all been caused by alternating current machines, which are extremely dangerous when of high electromotive force. The continuous current machines, however, do not give such severe shocks, and, in the opinion of many scientific men, are not dangerous, though capable of inflicting considerable pain. However, it will be the duty of every electrical engineer to take care so to place his leads as to make it almost impossible for any one to touch both at the same time, severe shocks being thus entirely prevented. On the whole, were every house lighted by electricity and every factory to receive its "power" in that form, the dangers would be much less than those which exist now from gas and boilers. For no bad workmanship or carelessness can by any possibility cause an explosion to be produced by an electric current; and, in the event of a fire taking place, conducting wires would only heat, and perhaps fuse, instead of feeding the flames with combustible and explosive matter as gas-pipes do when fused by the heat of a burning building.

The number of dynamo machines at the Exhibition is very great, but for the most part they are all modifications of the well-known forms—i.e. those of the Gramme type with ring-shaped armatures, or those of the Siemens type with cylindrical armatures. Of the first type the most original is perhaps the Bürgin machine exhibited by Mr. Crompton, which may be roughly described as consisting of a number of thin Gramme rings mounted side by side, each ring being a small fraction of a revolution in advance of the next one, the effect of this arrangement being to make the current more continuous. The rings are further polygonal, instead of circular, which reduces the difficulty of winding the coils, and enables the rings to be more securely and rigidly attached to the revolving shaft. But there is one exhibit which must give many inventors most bitter feelings. This is in the Italian section, where Professor Antoine Pacinotti of the University of Cagliari exhibits some models of machines made by him so long ago as 1860, and described by him publicly in 1864. We see here almost every detail of the modern dynamo machines; one is a Gramme machine, another a Brush machine. Not only are these early forms identical in principle with the modern types, but even important details are the same in both. Professor Pacinotti used wire brushes in connexion with his commutators, and placed them in the same position as that adopted by modern construc-

tors. The existence of these forgotten instruments is another proof of the fostering power of commercial enterprise on scientific progress. These beautiful and useful inventions died in Italy, whilst their exact counterparts in France, England, and America have brought honour and profit to their inventors, and have helped on the work of pure scientific research.

The electric transmission of energy is fairly well represented in the Exhibition, the apparatus varying in size from the original ploughing gear of M. Menier to tiny motors used to propel toy boats. Speaking in general terms, for driving large machinery the Gramme machine is used, whilst for lighter work, such as driving sewing-machines, small boats, &c., Siemens's armatures are used with either permanent or electro-magnets to produce the magnetic field. In the important class of railway signalling apparatus there are several exhibits, many of which, though ingenious, are complicated, and not thoroughly suited to the purpose. Mr. Sykes's system of electric locking of signals from station to station, which has been used on the Metropolitan District and some other railways in England for some time, is exhibited. Perhaps the most promising novelty in this direction is Mr. Spagnoletti's system. The locking apparatus on the signal lever is contained in a space not much larger than two seidlitz-powder boxes, and the whole apparatus seems to leave no room for accident by the intervention of human carelessness. If a signalman at station A wishes to send a train to station B he is unable to lower his starting signal until he has asked permission from B; if the line is clear, B unlocks A's signal; A lowers it, and, on putting it back to danger, it locks itself; in addition, by the act of unlocking A's signal, B breaks the line-wire between the two stations, so that he can no longer unlock A's signal. The train, on passing out of B's station, however, restores the continuity of the line automatically, and so restores the power of unlocking the signal at the station behind. It is thus impossible for two trains to be in the same section of the line at the same time. This system has been put up on parts of the Great Western line.

The same inventor also exhibits a very ingenious and novel fire-alarm, by which any number of alarms can be put on one line wire, each, when set going, indicating its name at the central office on a dial. The requisite makes and breaks of the circuit are effected by a metal ball, which, when released by a lever, rolls down a sort of railway, making contacts as it goes; thus rendering the action of the transmitter uniform and regular, however excited and careless the person setting the instrument in action may be.

In the class of telephones and telephone transmitters we find practically nothing that is new, with the exception of Dolbear's induction telephone in the American department. This remarkable instrument consists merely of two plates of ferrotype iron, separated by a vulcanite ring rather less than the tenth of a millimetre in thickness, forming in fact an air condenser; these plates are connected one to each terminal of the secondary circuit of an induction coil at the transmitting end, in the primary circuit of which is included a battery and a microphone transmitter. The variation in the mutual attraction of the two plates from their varying charges received from the coil is sufficient to clearly reproduce speech. It is further claimed for this instrument that, as the line circuit is never closed, it will be less affected by induction than other forms of telephone. An ingenious modification of the microphone is exhibited in the Belgian section by M. Locht Labye, under the name of the "Pantéléphone"; it is not only one of the simplest transmitters yet made, but is perhaps the most sensitive, transmitting ordinary speech at distances of thirty and forty yards, and the lowest whisper at a distance of two or three feet. It consists of a plate of cork about six inches long and four wide, suspended by two pieces of slight watch-spring from one of its short sides. In the middle line, close to the bottom edge of the plate, a button of hard carbon about the size of a shilling is embedded and placed in electrical connexion with one of the suspending springs by means of a wire. The button is pressed upon by a hinged brass hook, the hinge being made sufficiently stiff to enable the pressure to be adjusted by turning the hook more or less on its pivot; the current passes from the hook through the carbon to the upper spring. The instrument is connected up in the usual way with a battery and induction coil, and any of the well-known types of telephone can be used at the other end of the line as a receiver.

A curious transmitter is shown in the Swiss section by M. A. Amser. In this instrument the microphone part of the circuit is formed by a little flame, adjusted until it is very nearly a "singing flame." This just makes contact with a platinum wire, and by its elongation and contraction under the influence of sound vibrations varies the resistance sufficiently to transmit speech. Of course this apparatus is only a philosophical toy, but it is yet of some scientific interest.

In the class of telegraph instruments there is a fine display of almost all the known forms of apparatus, but not much that is new; the two most interesting novelties, perhaps, being a very ingenious and comparatively simple instrument for transmitting writing or drawings in facsimile, invented by M. Meyer, and exhibited in the department of the French Government Telegraphs. The design is reproduced in coloured lines on a white ground. The Ministry of War has already used it experimentally for sending sketches of military positions, &c.; but, as it depends on the exact synchronizing of two sets of clockwork—as do all instruments of this kind—it is not likely to succeed in field telegraphs. In the same department is shown a modified form of Professor Hughes's type-printing instrument, devised by M. Baudot. The key-board

is reduced to five keys, the signals being given by combinations of keys pressed down together, as chords are played on the piano. It also allows of six messages being transmitted simultaneously on one wire.

The classes of physiological and medical apparatus are very disappointing, and do not represent even tolerably the ordinary forms of instruments in every-day use. The instruments of scientific electrical research are well represented; but we were unable to find anything of especial interest.

One of the most perfect examples of mechanical skill, both in adaptation of means to their end and in finished workmanship, is the Telemeteorograph of Van Rysselberghe, exhibited by the Observatoire Royale of Brussels. This instrument records at intervals of a quarter of an hour the readings of the wet bulb and dry bulb thermometers, the height of the barometer, and the direction and force of the wind, and engraves the records on a cylinder of zinc, from which the curves and their co-ordinates can be at once printed, the whole operation being conducted perfectly automatically.

The most interesting thing in the whole Exhibition from a scientific point of view is undoubtedly the apparatus and experiments of Dr. C. A. Bjerknes in the Norwegian section. By the action of vibrating bodies in water Dr. Bjerknes has succeeded in reproducing the phenomena of the magnetic field; his vibrating bodies consist of little drums with india-rubber heads, set in action by pulses of air from a little air-pump—which behave like isolated poles, and of solid spheres vibrating backwards and forwards on one of their diameters which behave like bar magnets. All the phenomena of attraction and repulsion between magnets are reproduced by these instruments, and tracings can be taken of the lines of force round them, which exactly correspond to those of the magnetic field. Again, a vibrating body and a non-vibrating body behave like a magnet and an unmagnetised substance, the non-vibrating body behaving as a magnetic or paramagnetic body, according as its specific gravity is less or greater than that of water. Further, Dr. Bjerknes has produced tracings identical with the lines of force round a current by using a ball making half turns each way in rapid succession. We may hope that when his mathematical theory of these effects has been well investigated, some fresh gleam of light may penetrate the darkness which still conceals from us the true nature of electrical and magnetic phenomena.

THE SALVATION WAR CRY.

TO a casual observer the Salvation Army seems to have attained its chief purpose. Its leaders profess to wage an organized warfare with sin and "the Devil," who is represented by the roughs of the various towns in which the forces of Salvation pitch their camp. If the leaders want a good fight, they have not been disappointed. Sunday is made hideous every week in many towns and villages by battles between the Salvation Army and their secular opponents—if, indeed, these affairs can be called battles in which all the kicking and striking is on one side. Many of our fellow-countrymen in Lancashire and elsewhere spend Saturday night in kicking any inoffensive strangers they may chance to meet with clogged boots. To these sportsmen the appearance of the Salvation Army seems a providential boon. Many of the officers of the army are women, like Captain Kate Taylor (*née* Watts). Both privates and officers feel bound to suffer peacefully. Thus they are the natural sport and prey of the kicking section of the population. Both sides are pleased; the roughs gratify their ruffianly instincts, the members of the Salvation army rejoice in the luxury of martyrdom. The only people who are not satisfied by these battles are the somewhat large proportion of citizens who neither care to "get properly saved" by "Hallelujah methods" at "Salvation free-and-easys," nor yet rejoice in persecuting evangelists whose scheme of operations and whose language are certainly displeasing to a cultivated taste.

People have asked, rather superfluously, why the Salvation Army is so apt to get kicked, pelted, and ducked? Other preachers and propagandists seem to receive more halfpence than kicks. Any one may preach any doctrines, from those of Buddha or Confucius to the truth as it is in Mr. Bradlaugh, in any open space, without disagreeable consequences. A small and inattentive crowd, dwindling down to nurses and infants in perambulators, listens to Mr. Stiggins as he "lets old 'Uxley and Darwin have it 'ot," or to some equally fervent missionary who easily disposes of the evidences of creation from design, or gets rid of the doctrine of a future life. No one molests these preachers, and, as Mr. Tennyson observes, "a man" (or even a woman) "may say the thing he will." It is only the Salvation Army that may not say the thing it would like to remark. There is nothing naturally irritating to the popular sentiment in the banners and music with which the Salvation Army adorns its processions and services. Titchborne mobs, the Ancient Order of Foresters, the Band of Hope, and a number of patriotic Irish associations, go about with banners and music, whenever they please, and nobody stones and kicks them. The Salvation Army readily explain their own peculiar sufferings by the theory that the Devil himself is raging against them, and that he has secured the aid of the publicans, who, again, have egged on the sinners. But it is a wise rule not to advance a purely supernatural hypothesis when a natural one will serve the turn. We are driven to the conclusion

which we have already advanced, that the Salvation Army is assailed and bullied chiefly because it is pacific, and will not return evil for evil. Partly, perhaps, its enemies are irritated by the notorious fact that the Salvation Army regards them as by no means "properly saved," and does not entertain the faintest fear of meeting them again in another and a better world.

It is not more difficult to explain, what may puzzle the Salvation Army, the indifference of educated people to their doubtless honest and well-meant propaganda. A copy of the Salvation newspaper, *The War Cry*, lies before us, and in all religious literature we have seen nothing more painfully grotesque and unconsciously irreverent. The vagaries of nigger preachers, the extravagances of nigger sacred melodists, the extravagances of the old Puritans when most hopelessly deprived of the sense of humour, are all easily outdone by the performances of *The War Cry*. Few hymns are good considered as literature, and Mr. Arnold is fond of quoting one which begins

My Jesus to know
And to feel his blood flow
'Tis pleasure immortal, 'tis heaven below,

as an example of the religious taste of the middle classes. But the following composition (from which we have struck out a verse that excels the others in irreverence) would probably seem grotesque to a crowd of enthusiastic plantation hands at a camp meeting:—

(Original for the War Cry.)

GOING UP.

BY STAFF-CAPTAIN PEARSON.

TUNE:—"I'm bound to go." (S.A.M. 1.)

Good Elijah went to Heaven,
In a chariot of fire;
Bright and warm to glory driven,
Fiery horses drew him higher.

CHORUS.

We're going up, we're going up
In chariots, we're going up;
We're going up, we're going up.
At Army speed, we're going up.

Up God's deathless way to glory,
Where God's holy seraphs burn;
Enoch travelled by translation,
With no ticket to return.

John and Stephen saw the City,
When the door was open wide;
Heaven may look sublime and pretty,
But 'tis best to be inside.

Up to glory Paul was carried,
Wondrous things to hear and see;
He surveyed the Upper Country,
Went right up to Number Three.

Millions now are up in glory,
Up from sin, and death and hell:
In God's best Salvation Chariots,
We are going up as well.

Saints go up from Army Stations,
Fiery horses still depart;
In God's going-up Salvation,
Up to glory all may start.

There must be something wrong in a religious movement which prefers to speak of the Third Heaven, in hotel style, as "Number Three."

One of the most moving contributions to *The War Cry* is the spiritual autobiography of Major Taylor. The gallant Major recalls some of his early offences when he was still a child of sin, and, as he says, "spent much precious time in the service of the Devil." Thus he relates how his father, a farmer, once told him to go and shut a gate, on a dusky evening; how he went off, hid in a hedge "as long as I thought it would take me to get to the gate and back," and then announced that the gate was closed and "it was all right." But the Major's father, an energetic disciplinarian, discovered and punished this little bit of work done in the service of the Devil. On another occasion the Major drenched his coat in a pond, and then came home and said that it had been too wet for him to go to school. As this trick was played off on his mother, the Major escaped detection. He now became "very anxious"—and it was high time—"about his soul's salvation." He was converted—we observe, with regret and apprehension that he does not know the exact "hour or date" of this experience—and, as he says, "I am in the fountain now." At the age of sixteen he became a draper's apprentice, and "began to work for Jesus." Since he joined the Salvation Army he has been much exercised as to the propriety of going to distant "knee-drills" and Salvation reviews by railway on Sunday. But he has come to the conclusion that it is definitely wrong, and now he is quite "sanctified and made whole." After being "drilled at Whitechapel for two months," he was shunted to Middlesbro'. "There I lost a lot of sermonizing ideas, and got into the Hallelujah style, which I soon saw clearly to be the best for our job." From this we gather that the preachers of the Salvation Army do not appeal to the mere human reason by sermons, but to the emotions, by dint of ecstatic howling. Thus Captain Pearson writes in a bulletin:—"Talk about sharp-shooting, 160 speak in one hour; are not 160 short good testimonies better than two hours' bad preaching?" Certainly nothing can be worse than two hours' bad preaching. And yet there cannot be much coherent argument in testimonies delivered

at the rate of two and a fraction per minute. This is the style of thing, however, which suits "a regular Hallelujah man." From another remark of Major Taylor's we learn that the peaceful public really has one very palpable grievance against the Salvation Army. "It was at Boston that a woman, enraged with our proceedings, exclaimed, 'Coming here on a night with your row, wakening up the bairns after they are gone to sleep!'" There can be no doubt, we fear, that the Salvation Army are rather noisy, not to say rowdy, evangelists. The class of people they wish to convert are generally accustomed to noise and disturbance, and possibly would not be attracted by any quiet and decorous manoeuvres. When a gentleman or lady is comfortably seated with gin or beer, only a very pronounced tumult in the street will draw him or her from earthly enjoyments. To make a noise, then, to get up "Salvation free-and-easys" and "Hosanna tea-fights," is, perhaps, sagacious strategy. But, if these tactics lead to a regular fight, the Salvation leaders have scarcely reason to complain.

The proceedings of converts, of recruits in the Salvation Army, are eccentric.

Several wept their way
To Calvary Before Breakfast,

writes Captain Lloyd, with all the emphasis of leaded type. A convert explained, with tears in her eyes, the material results of the change in her spiritual condition. Her husband had now got a pair of boots, for lack of which in his unconverted state he had endured considerable inconvenience. A very startling penitent, whom one would even now rather not meet at a Hallelujah tea-party, said, "I thank God I am saved. I have been very near committing murder. I have taken a loaded pistol upstairs with the intention of shooting my mother, but God stopped me just in time." "We could mention many other such cases," says the editor of *The War Cry* calmly, just as if a large proportion of the unconverted were in the habit of taking loaded pistols upstairs with the intention of shooting their mothers. In Whitechapel a convert announced that, "before he was saved, he intended that night to shoot George Moor of the Christy Minstrels." Now that he is saved, he has thought better of this rash purpose, and Mr. Moore also has been saved, in the worldly sense of the term, from the revolver of the man of Whitechapel. In Whitechapel, too, "a poor woman who was going to throw herself into the Thames came and threw herself into the Fountain instead"—the fountain, that is, where the converted Major Taylor announces that he has taken up his quarters. Yet another convert has given up "reading Payne's works" (not those, we presume, of Mr. John Payne), and another has ceased to consider fifteen pints of ale a day necessary to his health and happiness.

All this is very gratifying, and it would seem that the ranks of the Salvation Army are being rapidly recruited with confirmed drunkards and poor crazed creatures on the borders of homicidal and suicidal mania. Yet it may be worth while to warn the generals of the force that the zeal of these recruits is apt to outrun their discretion, and that they may astonish both the religious and secular world by acts of which the motive force is supplied by drink, though the direction may have been given by a hastily accepted theology.

We conclude with giving a wider circulation to the modest wants of Bandmaster Fry. "Bandmaster Fry will be thankful if any of the Lord's Soldiers have a double-action Harp, not in use, to send it to Head Quarters, to be used in the Army Band for the Lord!"

BOULOGNE, PAST AND PRESENT.

WE do not know whether Queen Mary's lament over Calais is to be counted among the "mock pearls" of history; but possibly Her Majesty's grief might have been assuaged could she have projected her mind into the future. For it is certain that with the surprise of the last of our Continental possessions we did not finally lose our command of the gates of France. Some centuries afterwards the English occupied Boulogne in force, and they are unlikely ever to relax their hold upon the place. English society in Boulogne after Bonaparte was exiled and Europe pacified was a synonym for all that was insolvent and disreputable. Men who had outrun the constable took passage thither in the Channel packets; and, while doing their best to keep body and soul together, looked wistfully to the cliffs of England and lamented lost opportunities. In Boulogne they might live cheap, but it was hard to eke out precarious remittances. The natives, while finding some pickings on the most unpromising subjects, strongly objected to being preyed upon themselves; and the swaggering sharpers in the impecunious community of our countrymen were better known by foreigners than respected. In the words of the French proverb, "Les loups ne s'entremangent pas"; and to each other they presented few opportunities of doing profitable business. The extent of their habitual gambling was a game at cards or pool, for love or for refreshments, and to keep their hands in. Now and then, with luck, they might replenish their purses for a time, when some simple-minded victim fell into their clutches. Young gentlemen with more cash than brains, when starting on a Continental tour, either found themselves greeted cordially by some former acquaintance or slipped somehow into passing intimacy with a plausible stranger, who courteously volunteered to do the honours of the

place. For in those days of diligences and post-chaises men travelled leisurely, and they were likely enough to break the journey at Boulogne after some sharp tossing on the waves of the Channel. The introduction was followed by a dinner invitation on one side or the other; the Boulonnais settler presented companions and confederates; wine was circulated freely, and possibly drugged; cards were suggested to kill the evening; and then followed one of those sensational little dramas which Mr. Wilkie Collins has elaborated in one of his recent novels. No wonder that Boulogne got an evil name as a sanctuary and place of refuge for debtors and swindlers. But, as poverty brings one into contact with questionable companions, the pauperized society was extremely mixed. Side by side with the shabby and unscrupulous good-for-nothings vegetated a number of families of unimpeachable respectability. Their straitened means were their misfortune, not their fault, and they had gone to Boulogne for economy and "educational advantages." The educational advantages were more than problematical. At best the children picked up indifferent French from teachers of the Pas-de-Calais whose language was seldom pure, and from servants who spoke detestable patois. And as they grew up they stood in need of close watching by parents who were often pre-occupied by domestic worries. The lads had the worst of examples in the *vauriens* of whom we have spoken; and as to the daughters, when the spotless lambs were left to themselves, there were wolves watching to pounce on them everywhere. On the whole, the very promiscuous mixture of classes must have tended to the general demoralization. Yet there must always have been a sufficiency of decent-living people to save the place from any such visitation as rolled the sea of salt over the submerged Cities of the Plain. Inscriptions on churches still bear witness to the piety that provided for the religious wants of the settlers, though the means of endowment were necessarily deficient, and the clergymen must still live by seat-rents and alms-offerings. The town from the beginning began to be steadily Anglicized. A brisk business must have been done in the ale and stout which are still advertised in each bar window and eating-house. Second-rate pensions sprang up in certain quarters in each side street, where we imagine that inferior French meat was treated in rough-and-ready English fashion, while "piquette," corrected by brandy, did duty for the vintages of the Garonne. Chemists, no doubt, increased and multiplied as at present, for English people, as Thackeray used to remark, must have their medicines go where they will. Finally, a large part of the French population was inoculated with some words of broken English; while alternative English inscriptions over half the signboards showed startling examples of phonetic spelling.

Such was Boulogne in the old days as our fancy paints it; and fancy has been assisted by tradition and research. As for the modern city, with its inhabitants of both nations, we have little but good to say, so far as a short sojourn has made us acquainted with it. Indeed it strikes us that it is far less known than it deserves to be. Though within some six-and-twenty miles of Folkestone, and though it is still semi-colonized by our country people, it nevertheless remains thoroughly French. You see French life in the open air, French manners, and the characteristic and old-fashioned costumes of the lower orders, to as much advantage as in watering-places on the Mediterranean or Bay of Biscay, and in greater variety. For those who love to lounge and who can find amusement in trifles, there is something to be done or seen at all hours of the day. We have spoken of Boulogne as a city advisedly. Judging by the age of the houses, it must always have straggled over the hills on which it is built; but of late years it has extended itself amazingly. It always sent forth its fleets of fishing vessels; but since the construction of international lines of railway, it has greatly developed the Channel traffic. Manufactories have sprung up along the banks of the Liane, and in the younger town of Capécure on the opposite bank of the river. There are suburbs extending far into the country; when you think you are fairly out of sight and hearing of the town, you suddenly turn the corner of a wood into an outlying street; and there are populous inland villages in the immediate neighbourhood, which seem to be chiefly inhabited by fishermen who put to sea from the port. There is a dock of very ample dimensions, berthing many ships and steamers of considerable burden; and when the new deep-sea harbour works to the south shall have been completed, commerce and building operations must receive an immense impulse. There is always a lively scene on the bustling quays, where steamers are loading or unloading; and you thread your way among piles of cotton-bales, cases of champagne, of tinned meat and biscuits, heaps of beet-root sugar-loaves, or loads of Norway timber. The long piers are naturally a favourite promenade for strangers, though they are roughly boarded with ventilating planking, and though they are far from the quarters occupied by residents. And it is an exciting sight at high tide, when there is a stream of vessels either way through the narrow "gut," from the new double-funnelled Folkestone steamer with its upper deck crowded with British tourists, down to the tiniest of the fishing schooners, with the crew clad in brown, matching the rich neutral tints of the sails. But many of the Boulogne fishing barks are strongly manned and of considerable tonnage, as they are fitted out by men of capital and sent on cruises to the Scotch and Irish coasts. It would seem that the fishermen, like those of Brittany, are still devout, for many of their vessels are either christened after saints or bear such pious names as *La Volonté de Dieu*. Yet, on the other hand,

there must be a leaven of Republican opinion; for occasionally we remark an *Egalité* or a *Gambetta*, while *Paul de Cassagnac* on the stem of another shows that the champion militant of the Empire has a knot of admirers among the amphibious. These fishing folk must be generally well to do. You may see them, while preparing their nets or lines, sitting over very comfortable meals on deck; and the women are resplendent in earrings and other ornaments, and apparently grudge nothing to the laundress for the "get-up" of their linen on a Sunday.

Rubbing shoulders with these primitive natives, who seem to trouble themselves about nothing but their personal concerns, is the full rush of cockney and tourist life. Facing the quays which lead from the railway-bridge to the handsome buildings of the Casino, is a line of hotels in an ascending scale of excellence, flanked at either end by establishments of the first rank. Between the "Christol" and the great Imperial Hotel are many houses that must be cheap, and perhaps in some cases by no means nice. They advertise themselves by *salles-à-manger* looking out upon the street, where the guests dine by brilliant gaslight with blinds never drawn down. The parties are merry rather than select, for the travelling Englishman seems to be shaking off his unsociability, and rather inclining to fraternize on slight provocation. A short stay in one of these places ought to be an excellent education for the novelist who desires to study middle-class manners in their humorous aspect; but, if he wished to make himself at home with original types of character, we should advise him to push his researches into the boarding-houses, though it may be a question, now that quotations rule low in the novel market, whether the game would be worth the candle. As the chief hotels stand near the quays, the boarding-houses are situated mainly in the back streets; and, traversing these by the spacious thoroughfare of the Grande Rue, you climb to the quarters of the resident English and the picturesque heights of the old town. The Grande Rue, with the animated fruit and vegetable market held under the shadow of the rather effective church, must be one of the steepest streets in Europe with similar pretensions. And it mounts to a sort of Kremlin or Bala Hissar, where churches, municipal buildings, huge convents turned into schools, in a network of narrow streets and lanes, with quaint, lofty, and tumble-down houses, are girt by venerable fortifications which have been converted into shady promenades. In fact, the promenades are only too shady, for the trees have been left unthinned, while the walks have a somewhat neglected air. But on all sides the views are extensive, and towards the sea they are superb. Landward the country is bleak and bare, though here and there are patches of weather-beaten wood in some half-sheltered valley, surrounding an old château with its farm buildings that reminds one of Hugomont. And eastward is a succession of commanding heights, several of them crowned with hamlets and imposing-looking churches. As for the air of Boulogne, there can be no two opinions. It is invariably fresh and extraordinarily invigorating, which is the reason, perhaps, that the inhabitants are so careless of sanitary considerations. The drainage is abominable, and for the most part superficial; were it not for the steepness of many of the streets, it is certain that the death-rate would be a heavy one; and the smells, especially in the harbour at low water, must be nearly as offensive as those of Cologne which Coleridge has commemorated. By choosing the situation of one's hotel judiciously the scents may be almost or altogether avoided; but it is to be remembered that Boulogne is a watering-place in the rough, and that the invalid must not expect English luxuries there. There are few comfortable carriages, and only one or two bath-chairs, partly, perhaps, because there is no smooth paving or regular promenade on which the chairs might be drawn.

THE REVENUE RETURNS.

THE Revenue Returns for the first half of the financial year, which ended with September, are very satisfactory. It is curious how long it is before changes in the condition of trade begin to tell upon the yield of the taxes. The improvement in trade has been going on for exactly two years, and yet it is only now that we can say the old elasticity of the revenue is returning. The reason, however, is not far to seek. The early stages of a trade revival are marked less by a rise in wages than by an increased demand for labour. Work can be had by all who seek for it, but the rate of remuneration is little higher than it was before. The great majority of workpeople who had continued in steady employment all through the depression earn very little more than they did, and consequently have not the means of spending more; while the newly employed have many calls upon them which they must meet before launching out into increased expenditure. The young and enterprising emigrate. Retaining a vivid sense of the hardships they have suffered, they use the turn of luck to betake themselves to new countries where they hope to find freer scope for their energies. Those who stay at home have probably incurred debts to the small tradespeople with whom they deal, and these have to be paid off before they can indulge in increased outlay. Probably, also, their wardrobes have to be renewed, and furniture which has been parted with in the bad times has to be replaced. Moreover, the difficulties they have just gone through leave a salutary impression behind, and it is some time before they venture into extra-

gances. For all these reasons the early stages of an improvement in trade are not marked by a great increase in the consumption of the masses of the population. It is not until wages rise decidedly that ignorant men, finding themselves in possession of incomes to which they are unused, indulge in extravagant outlay. This will come by and by, no doubt; but up to the present there has been no great increase of wages. Here and there the wages of certain trades have been raised; but, speaking of the country generally, the rise in wages has been slight. There is consequently no room for such expenditure on the part of the working classes as was witnessed in the inflation years that followed the Franco-German war. But, at the same time, the steady employment of the working classes generally at fair wages enables them to consume taxable articles more largely than they could do when many of them were living precariously by means of odd jobs; and it is this gradual increase in the consuming power of the masses which we are now feeling, and which will doubtless go on making itself more sensibly felt for the next few years.

For the half-year which ended with September we find an increase in all the items of revenue which are derived from taxation proper. The only decreases occur in Miscellaneous, Interest on Advances, and Crown Lands. Miscellaneous is composed of so many and such heterogeneous items that it is impossible to infer anything either from a decrease or an increase. As a matter of fact, this source of revenue has been decreasing since the 1st of April. In the past three months it has fallen off 195,861*l.* compared with the corresponding quarter of last year; and in the six months it has fallen off 250,440*l.* In the last three months, therefore, the decrease has been in a greater ratio than for the six months; but, as we have just said, the item is so heterogeneous that it is impossible to found any inference upon it. Interest on Advances, again, shows a decrease of 1,565*l.* for the half-year, but it likewise gives us no indication of the condition of the population. And Crown Lands show a decrease of 15,000*l.*, the whole having occurred in the last three months. On the other hand, all the revenues derived from taxation show increases for the half-year. Under the head of Customs the increase is as much as 256,000*l.*, and of this amount 150,000*l.* is in the last three months, showing that the increase has gone on augmenting as the year advanced. Under the head of Excise, again, the increase for the quarter ended with September is as much as 865,000*l.*; but, as there was a heavy falling off in the first quarter of the year, the increase for the six months is only 440,000*l.* Still it is noteworthy that the increase for the last three months has been so large as 865,000*l.* If this rate of augmentation is maintained until the end of the year, the increase under the head of Excise for the whole year will exceed the two millions at which Mr. Gladstone estimated it in his Budget statement. It would be rash, however, to speak too confidently upon this point. It will be in the recollection of our readers that, in his first Budget on returning to office, Mr. Gladstone substituted a Beer-tax for the Malt Duty, the substitution taking place on the 1st of October last year. As yet, therefore, we are comparing a new tax, of which we know very little, with the old tax for which it was substituted; but it is notorious that the Malt Duty came in irregularly. It was the custom of the Board of Inland Revenue to grant maltsters some time to pay the duty, and, in consequence, in some weeks very little was received, while at other times the receipts were very large. But the Beer-tax, as Mr. Gladstone has told us, comes in regularly all the year round. We must not assume, therefore, that the increase of 865,000*l.* under the head of Excise, which occurred in the last three months, will be continued during the remaining six months, when we shall begin to compare the receipts of the Beer-tax with the receipts of the same tax last year. At the same time very heavy drawbacks had to be allowed when the tax came into effect last year, and these will not be made this year. It is probable, therefore, that the increase may continue, and may even be larger than it has been up to the present time. But as yet it is only prudent not to be too sanguine. We have had too little experience as yet of the working of the Beer-tax to form any confident opinion respecting it. The safest way to judge of the consumption of the country is to lump both Customs and Excise together. If we do this, we find for the past three months an increase under the two heads of 1,015,000*l.*, and for the six months an increase of 696,000*l.* These are certainly satisfactory figures, and prove beyond a doubt that the consuming power of the masses of the population is rapidly increasing. Stamps, again, show an increase for the six months of 225,000*l.*, and for the three months of 125,000*l.* Here, again, the increase is slightly greater for the quarter than for the half-year; but possibly a portion of it is due to the speculation which has prevailed upon the Stock Exchange of late. Land-tax and House Duty show an increase of 10,000*l.* for the half-year; but for the quarter they exhibit precisely the same decrease. Property and Income-tax again show an increase for the six months of 460,000*l.*, and for the three months of 75,000*l.* These figures are not the least satisfactory of all that we have to notice. In his last Budget it will be remembered that Mr. Gladstone remitted the additional penny which he put on last year. We are therefore comparing the receipts of Income-tax now with the receipts at a higher rate last year, and yet, as we see, during the past three months the result is an increase of 75,000*l.* In the first quarter of the current year no doubt the increase in the receipts was due to the fact that arrears were then being collected at the higher rate of last year, whereas twelve

months previously the arrears were collected at the lower rate; but during the past three months very few arrears probably remained to be collected, and the receipts are chiefly at the lower rate of the current year. The Post Office, again, shows an increase of 112,000*l.* for the half-year, and of 100,000*l.* for the quarter, and the Telegraph Service shows an increase of 25,000*l.* for the half-year and of 30,000*l.* for the quarter. These two items reflect more quickly than others, perhaps, changes in the condition of the population, and the considerable increase which they exhibit, particularly in the last quarter, is therefore encouraging.

The net result is an increase for the half-year of 1,260,995*l.*, and for the quarter an increase of 1,121,085*l.* It will be seen that practically the whole increase has been obtained during the past three months. The bad weather of January and March, which checked trade so seriously and to some extent stopped out-of-door employment, apparently told very heavily upon the revenue, and its effects continued into the first quarter of the current financial year; but since the beginning of July the augmentation of the revenue has been very great, and, as we see, has extended over all items of taxation proper. It is fairly to be assumed that this increase will more or less continue. It has gone on gaining strength as the year has advanced, and there is no reason that can be seen why it should now diminish. On the contrary, all experience leads us to expect that, as the improvement in trade grows, the effect upon the revenue will become greater and greater. As we have explained, in the first year or two the improvement is scarcely felt; but when once it begins to be felt it tells rapidly, and, gaining strength, continues to swell the receipts for several subsequent years, even after the trade improvement itself has received a check. No doubt the bad harvest can hardly fail to have an unfavourable effect on the revenue. The agricultural classes generally being badly off, and being unable to spend as largely as usual, the result must show itself in the revenue. But this apparently will only be to prevent the growth of the revenue from being as rapid as it otherwise would be, not to prevent growth altogether. The increased productiveness of the taxes which these returns show only corroborates the evidence presented by all available statistics that trade is improving, and is likely to improve still more rapidly for the remainder of the year. And if trade continues to improve, the consuming power of the population will grow, and will increase the productiveness of the taxes.

OPERA AT THE LYCEUM.

MR. HAYES'S autumn season of opera at low prices began last Saturday at the Lyceum Theatre with the performance of Meyerbeer's opera of *Dinorah*. The great feature of interest was the reappearance of Mme. Marie Marimon on the London stage. After an interval of three years, this charming singer has once more assumed the part of the half-witted peasant maiden Dinorah; and, although her voice gave some evidence of wear, her execution of the extremely difficult music which the composer has written for the part was as precise as ever, while her acting was, even more than before, true to nature. The part of Dinorah requires a true actress to give it any interest; and as, unfortunately, many of the best singers are but poor players, the part has lost in interest, and attention has been attracted merely to the music. This, of course, may be said of a large number of other operas; but in the case of *Dinorah* the matter is of vital importance. Mme. Marimon, though a little nervous at first, threw herself into the part of the poor crazed girl with complete feeling and understanding. The scene in the first act with Corentin, with its curious inconsequential alternations of joy and grief, was finely realized; and in the "shadow dance" scene—where, by the by, she really sings to her shadow, and not to the audience, as nearly every other singer does—Mme. Marimon's acting was full of pathos. It is perhaps too much to expect that the English public will forego what they now claim as a right—we mean the encore; but if anything was required to prove the absurdity of re-demanding any particular part of an opera, the encore demanded on Monday night would be alone sufficient. Imagine Mark Antony repeating his address over the body of Cæsar, or Hamlet his soliloquy, at the request of an uproarious minority of the audience, whose acquaintance with Shakspeare is limited perhaps to those two speeches, and you have a parallel as absurd as the repetition of "Sei vendicata assai" in the opera of *Dinorah*. Yet Signor Padilla was forced to repeat it, though, to his credit, it was noticeable that he seemed somewhat unwilling to do so. This singer, although he appears for the first time in London, is well known at La Scala in Milan, and is likely to prove an acquisition to the opera at the Lyceum. To a fine baritone voice he adds considerable experience of the stage, and has a good presence. As Hoel he gave evidence that he was capable of acting much worthier parts, and showed that he was not above studying detail. The scene which led to the re-demand of "Sei vendicata assai" was finer in its acting than in its singing, which was somewhat strained. Signor Padilla has two faults, which we hope he will soon correct. It is not at all necessary to use the full force of his voice, which is very powerful, in such a house as the Lyceum; but this is perhaps natural in one who has been accustomed to sing in the larger theatres of the Continent, and such a mistake can easily be corrected. The other fault is due, perhaps, to his training as a singer. He has the pernicious habit of resting for an indefinitely long

time upon one note, at the sacrifice of all time or rhythm, which produces a far from pleasing effect, and at times is specially irritating. The tremolo, which last year was the principal fault amongst the singers in the autumn season, has as yet, we are happy to say, been conspicuous by its absence. With these exceptions, however, Signor Padilla's performance may be said to be a decided success. The part of the Goatherd fell to Mlle. Le Brun, a *débutante* of promise. Her voice, which is rather a mezzo-soprano than a contralto, is of a sympathetic quality, and has been evidently trained with great care, and she acted with intelligence. Signor Frapolli appeared as Corentino, a part which suits him well, and which he acted with commendable appreciation. Divesting it completely of buffoonery, he yet gave sufficient prominence to the comic scenes which fall to him. His voice sounded to greater advantage in the more limited Lyceum auditorium than at the Italian Opera, though it would be well for him to bear in mind that he is singing in a smaller theatre.

On Monday *Rigoletto* was performed, with Mme. Rose Hersee as Gilda. Mme. Hersee has been travelling for some time with an operatic company in the colonies, and the report of her successes naturally gave an interest to her reappearance in London. Her impersonation of the unfortunate daughter of the Court Jester was natural and impressive, and in one or two scenes, such as the love scenes with the Duke, and that in which she meets her father after her abduction, showed marked dramatic power. Her voice seemed at first to have lost some of its original vigour; but this, perhaps, was only due to the natural nervousness which even some of the greatest performers are liable to on a first appearance on a new stage, for later on it was as strong as was necessary for the Lyceum opera. To Signor Frapolli fell the part of the Duke, which he sustained with some credit, although he marred the effect of the great song in which Giuglini used to shine, "*La donna è mobile*," by a most unhappy piece of phrasing. With the exception that Signor Padilla's figure hardly suits the character, his performance of *Rigoletto* was as good as one as we have seen for some time. It would be hard to say in which special scene he was at his best; but we can commend his acting when his unfortunate daughter is telling him of her dishonour, and the outburst of rage, mingled with remorse at his own horrible conduct, which follows, and the savage desire of revenge in the quartet in the third act. His appeal to the nobles to tell him where his daughter is was also finely pathetic, and deserved the applause which followed. The faults which we have remarked upon above were still evident, though not so prominent as on Saturday night. Signor Ponsard played Sparafucile, and Mlle. Le Brun Maddalena. Of the former it is only necessary to observe that his intonation was anything but true. Mlle. Le Brun sang the part of Maddalena with considerable artistic skill.

The male portion of the chorus appears the weaker, and on the first night once or twice nearly succeeded in ruining the opera. One need not perhaps expect the chorus to be perfect at these representations; but a little more drilling would have a marvellous effect, and in every way improve the enjoyment of low-priced opera. That this is a fact is shown in the marked improvement to be noticed at the Lyceum over the performances at Her Majesty's last autumn, and the consequent appreciation of the public. Of the orchestra we cannot speak with unmixed praise. There was an unsteadiness and want of attack which spoke of insufficient rehearsals, and there was a weakness in the wind instruments especially which was very marked at one or two points in *Dinorah*. It is true that the space allotted to each player is very small. Signor Li Calsi conducted. The theatre during Mr. Irving's absence has been enlarged as far as the entrances and exits are concerned, and the comfort of the audience has been attended to by increased accommodation and a better system of ventilation.

We have often before insisted that opera at low prices and in a theatre of smaller dimensions than either Covent Garden or Her Majesty's would have an ensured success, and it bids fair to obtain it now at the hands of Mr. Samuel Hayes. Hitherto, certainly, looked at from a musical point of view, the autumn seasons have not realized our expectations, but there was ample reason for their failure. People will listen even to second-rate soloists provided they are supported by an adequately trained chorus and orchestra, and, though in the present instance we cannot say that either show marked excellence, they are, at any rate, much more up to their work than the similar members of previous companies have been. And, again, a singer reckoned as second rate at the larger theatres has at least one great disadvantage removed by the comparatively small size of a house like the Lyceum, and perhaps this may give him the confidence which is so necessary an element in all good acting and singing. Mr. Hayes's programme is a sufficiently modest one. There are no novelties promised and no great star singers paraded; but an ample, though ordinary, repertoire which has hitherto been very inefficiently provided to the public is promised, and we doubt not the promise will be fulfilled. There is also another great advantage in these performances—namely, they begin early and can therefore end at a reasonable hour.

NEWMARKET FIRST OCTOBER MEETING.

THE Newmarket autumn racing season began in beautiful weather. There are perhaps few occasions on which racing can be more thoroughly enjoyed than on a crisp autumn afternoon on Newmarket Heath, especially when one is riding a good hack. Yet the man who determines to attend throughout the October meetings must make up his mind to bear some days, at least, of biting winds and driving rain. The first thing that racegoers found out on arriving on the course for the First October Meeting this year was that the fee for entering the Bird Cage had been raised from half a guinea to a sovereign. This "improvement" caused some grumbling, but we cannot see why the authorities should not charge whatever sum they think proper for admission to their own saddling paddock. We should hesitate to advise that the charge for entrance to saddling paddocks at other meetings should be raised, but at certain races the crowds in the paddocks are in these days so large, that it is next to impossible to see anything of the horses, and if an increase of the price of admission would reduce the crush, we should not complain. It might be better economy to pay a sovereign and get a good look at the horses than to pay half a sovereign and see nothing for it.

Ten days before the First October Meeting the Paris Omnium, or French Cesarewitch, had been won by Count F. de Lagrange's Innocent, who had carried a heavy weight and had beaten twenty-six opponents, winning in a canter by a couple of lengths. In the opening race of the Newmarket meeting this French hero had an opportunity of showing what he could do on this side of the Channel. He ran very well throughout the race, but within a stride of the post old Suttler just managed to catch him, and won the race by a head. It is but fair to say that Suttler, who has won seven races out of nine this season, was bred in France. After the race, the conditions of which obliged the winner to be sold by auction, Suttler was bought in by his owner for 1,070 guineas, and Innocent was claimed by Captain Machell at the price of 1,000*l.* The most interesting race of the day was the Great Foal Stakes, a prize worth 2,052*l.* The first favourite was Thebais, who had won five races this season without once suffering defeat. Among her victories had been the Oaks and the One Thousand Guineas, and she had won more than 10,000*l.* this year in stakes alone, to say nothing of something like 6,000*l.* which she had won last year as a two-year-old. Indeed she had hitherto been generally regarded as the best three-year-old of her year. She is a good-looking filly, and had shown considerable muscular development. Great, therefore, was the horror of her backers when they found, on her being stripped for the Great Foal Stakes, that she had lost her powerful muscular appearance, and looked weak and flabby. Nevertheless she continued to be the first favourite up to the start, as her public form gave her every right to such a position. The uncertain Scobell was second favourite, and Ishmael and Cameliard, who had been first and second in the Great Yorkshire Stakes, were respectively third and fourth favourites. Thebais made the running, but, when the struggle began in the Dip, she was the first of the leading division to give way, and soon collapsed so completely that she might have been no relation to the gallant Thebais who used to bound forward so boldly when challenged. When popular heroes are defeated, there are always plenty of people ready to depreciate them, and when Thebais was beaten for the first time this season, racing prophets suddenly recollected that this was the first time this year that she had been confronted by opponents of the opposite sex. We must not, while discussing the defeat of Thebais, forget the three horses who were fighting out the race. It was a severe struggle. Cameliard was leading, closely followed by Ishmael on one side and Scobell on the other. As they raced up the hill, Scobell gained a slight advantage, which he maintained to the end, winning at last by half a length. Ishmael made a rush, and got his head in front of Cameliard as the winning-post was passed. This confirmed the form of the pair in the Great Yorkshire Stakes, as they had been separated by exactly the same distance in that race. As Scobell has won more than 6,000*l.* in stakes this season, his career can scarcely be called a failure, but yet, after having been expected to win the Two Thousand, the St. Leger, and the Grand Prix de Paris, it must be admitted that he has been rather a disappointing horse.

Both Cameliard and Thebais were brought out again on the second day of the meeting for the Thirty-third Triennial Stakes. Thebais was so evidently out of form that it seemed surprising that she was backed at such a short price as 4 to 1, although she would probably have started at evens if she had been at her best. Only 11 to 10 was laid against Cameliard, who walked very stiffly after his race of the preceding day. The second favourite was the Duke of Hamilton's Fiddler. This horse had run several times as a two-year-old without winning; but this year he had only been out twice, winning one of his races. In his other race, the Craven Stakes, he had been a bad third to Cameliard; so on public form he now seemed to have little chance of beating the last-named horse. Yet Cameliard was evidently very leg-weary, and Fiddler had improved wonderfully in appearance since he had last run in public. The only other starter was Falkirk. Fiddler made the running, followed by Cameliard. At the Bushes Thebais and Falkirk were beaten; but Cameliard went gradually up to Fiddler, who began to run like a tired horse. As they came up from the Dip, Fiddler kept struggling on with great gameness, although Cameliard was ap-

parently overhauling him. About half way up the incline, however, Cameliard also began to show symptoms of having had enough of it, and when the pair laboured up to the winning-post, Fiddler was a head in advance of his opponent. This race was more interesting than might at first sight appear; for Fiddler is handicapped at 6 st. 10 lbs. only for the Cesarewitch, a weight at which Cameliard would be considered, to use a racing phrase, "turned loose." When, therefore, Fiddler beat Cameliard at even weights, he was immediately installed as first favourite for the Cesarewitch. The Great Eastern Handicap, which was the principal race of the second day, was a very open affair. The large field of twenty-three horses started, and John Ridd, a 16 to 1 outsider, won very cleverly. There was a great deal of heavy gambling on a First Foal Stakes, for which a couple of fillies started. Very slight odds—11 to 10—were laid on Mr. Bowes's Blyskawica, but Prince Soltykoff's Merry News won, after a magnificent race, by a neck. The two fillies ran side by side throughout the race, and it was a mere question which of the pair could stay the longest.

The celebrated two-year-old filly Dutch Oven had walked over for the Buckenham Stakes on the Tuesday. Considering that she is one of the fastest fillies of the season, it was not surprising that no one cared to oppose her, as the entrance money for that race was 300*l.*, half forfeit. On the Thursday, however, in the Triennial Produce Stakes, for which the entrance fee was only 10*l.*, five other two-year-olds came out to oppose her. The conditions of this race were that the second horse should receive 10 per cent., and the third horse 5 per cent., of the stakes; so half of the six starters were certain to get something. More than 3 to 1 was laid on Dutch Oven, 4 to 1 was laid against Red Spectre, a filly that had won several races, and 25 to 1 was vainly offered against either of the other four starters. Dutch Oven won in a common canter, although Archer only allowed her to be half a length in front of Red Spectre. There might from appearances have been two races, for some little time after the leading pair had passed the winning post, two of the other horses came racing in for the 5 per cent. due to the third in the race. There was a capital race between these two aspirants for third honours, ending in a dead heat. The Newmarket October Handicap was won by Victor Emanuel, the winner of the Chesterfield Cup at Goodwood. By far the most interesting race of the day was the Grand Duke Michael Stakes. The favourite was Ishmael. Foxhall, the winner of the Grand Prix de Paris, was the second favourite. Now in the Grand Prix, Tristan had run Foxhall to a head, and in the Great Yorkshire Stakes Ishmael had beaten Tristan by five lengths; on public form, therefore, Ishmael seemed certain to be able to beat Foxhall in the Grand Duke Michael Stakes, especially as he was to be allowed 7 lbs. by the last-named horse. Yet, instead of being beaten by Ishmael, Foxhall won in a common canter by four lengths, Don Fulano being second, and Ishmael a bad third. As soon as the race was over Foxhall was made first favourite for the Cesarewitch, completely supplanting Fiddler, the newly-elected favourite of the previous day. So astonished were some people by Foxhall's victory in the Grand Duke Michael Stakes, that they began to doubt whether Iroquois could have done as much, and made it a question whether Foxhall might not possibly be the best three-year-old of the season.

The St. Leger Stakes was the opening race of the last day of the meeting. Although Ishmael had beaten Great Carle very easily at York, Great Carle was now made first favourite and Ishmael second favourite. In the Great Yorkshire Stakes the pair had met at even weights, but now Ishmael was to give Great Carle 7 lbs. Moreover, Archer was to ride the last-named horse. It turned out to be a very fine thing between the pair, but Ishmael just won by a head. Dutch Oven came out for the Rous Memorial Stakes. Nellie, who had beaten her at York, was to run against her once more. At York Nellie had had 7 lbs. the best of the weights, but now the two fillies were to meet on equal terms. Dutch Oven had the best of the race all the way; and, although she only beat Nellie by a neck, she really won with great ease. It only remains to add that the weather throughout the meeting was as fine as could be wished. It is seldom that four more beautiful days in succession are enjoyed at any time of the year in this variable climate.

During the week that preceded the First October Meeting the Cobham Stud was sold. Only a couple of years ago the Stud Company came to grief, and the stock was sold by order of the official liquidators. A new firm was at once got up to take the place of the defunct Company, and a large number of the horses and mares sold at the sale were purchased to remain on the farm. Among other lots the new firm bought Blair Athol for 4,500 guineas, and Wild Oats for 2,500 guineas. The entire proceeds of the sale amounted to more than 54,000*l.*, and it was generally understood at the time that at least half that sum came out of the pockets of the new firm. The new Stud was of but short duration, for in the third week of last month it was rather suddenly sold without any reserve. The first day's sale brought in 15,000*l.* A couple of years before, the first day of the Cobham sale had produced 24,000*l.* Many of the mares at the late sale were old, but some of those that had been purchased at the previous sale were sold at an alarming depreciation. Eva, who had cost 1,600 guineas, went for 800, and Crinon, who had been purchased for 1,400 guineas, was sold for 730. The highest price of the day was that given for Jocosa—1,500 guineas—but she had cost 1,750 at the former sale. On the second day things were still worse, the proceeds being under 9,000 guineas, a sum more than 20,000

guineas below that realized on the second day two years ago. Blair Athol looked well for his age, but a very exorbitant price could scarcely have been expected for a stallion nineteen years old. On the whole, 1,950 guineas seemed a fair price for him, although he had been purchased for 12,500 guineas about nine years ago. One thing that made the late sale at Cobham less remunerative than its predecessor was the depreciation in the value of foals. In 1879 one foal fetched the ridiculous price of 1,100 guineas; but the highest price realized by a foal at the sale last month was 400 guineas. The sire Wild Oats, who had cost 2,500 at the previous sale, brought in 2,000 guineas, and Cadet, who had cost 400, now went for 100. There was some spirited bidding on behalf of the Australians and New Zealanders. Blair Athol fortunately remains in England, but Wild Oats goes abroad. At the sales of blood stock at Newmarket, the prices obtained at the auctions were not high. A two-year-old, however, was privately sold for the good round sum of 2,000.

REVIEWS.

ROSENTHAL'S PHYSIOLOGY OF MUSCLES AND NERVES.*

IT is only within the last thirty years or so that the study of the physiology of muscles and nerves has assumed the character of a distinctive branch of science. Scattered facts and observations, the fruits of anatomical and histological inquiries, have within that time been correlated with the results of electrical research to an extent that gives a new and positive basis to what was before but a tentative or conjectural treatment of this important class of vital phenomena. The names of Weber, Du Bois-Reymond, and Helmholtz will be held in honour as those of the founders of this department of knowledge, which has found the first attempt at a connected exposition of its position and aims in the short treatise of Professor I. Rosenthal, of Erlangen, lately issued in an English version in the course of the "International Scientific Series."

Difficult as it is to explain the phenomena of motion and sensation, it is in them, our author premises, that we see undeniably the primary distinction between animate and inanimate objects, and, in the main, between animals and plants. For though in plants there occur movements similar in some respects to those of animals, as in *Mimosa pudica*, the causes of motion are found essentially distinct in the vegetable from those of the animal organism. No less distinguishable are the so-called Brownian or molecular movements of minute granular bodies, to be seen under high magnifying powers in the fluid portions of vegetable and animal tissues alike. This is not to be called a vital phenomenon in the same sense as the independent motion which marks the lowest rank of the organic world, the minute protoplasmic masses known as *ameebæ*. In these we recognize one of the lowest forms of independent living animals. All living beings, moreover, are fundamentally composed of just such lumps of protoplasm as we see in the *ameeba*, and even in fully developed organisms separate parts occur which, in all respects, resemble these simple masses and move like them. An illustration of this is given by our author in the various forms assumed by the white blood-corpuscles in the blood of a guinea-pig. These at the temperature of live-blood exhibit active movements identical with those of *ameebæ*, which have in consequence been called *ameboid* movements. The corpuscles send out processes and retract them; they creep about upon the glass; they even absorb matter such as granules of any colouring substance drawn from the blood-fluid. They eat, that is, and they excrete. Each single form of this kind is in itself an elementary organism, or primary life-cell, whilst in the aggregate they build up a colony or society. The highest forms of plants and animals, in fact, originate out of a multitude of these elementary cells, developed in various ways by growth and nutriment, and differentiated by distinctive kinds of function. The powers of generating motion are proper to all forms of cell-life, to the simplest as to the most highly modified, but the modes of motion are various. What is known as ciliary motion is briefly explained before passing on to the main subject of the work. A microscopic section shows the delicate cilium with which portions of the mucous surfaces, such as the palate and windpipe, are densely studded, these perpetual vibratory movements propelling in a definite direction such particles as come in contact with them. In many fixed animals cilia of this kind produce a current which serves to bring the animal its food; in other aquatic animals they give the means of rotating in the water; whilst in some bodies their place is taken by a larger whip-like kind of process, by the sinuous motions of which the animal propels itself as a boat is moved by the quick motion of the rudder, or a water-newt by wriggling its tail. None, however, of these motions, our author goes on to show, equal in force, definiteness, or effect, those produced by muscles, the different forms of which in higher animal forms he describes as made up of smooth or striated fibres. The action of these fibres on the organism at large and the nervous system in particular is made clear in a succession of admirable chapters. Use is largely made of the ingenious mechanical contrivances introduced of late years

in aid of physiological research, muscular and nervous energy being thus brought within the scope of mechanical test and measurement. Amongst these are Du Bois-Reymond's apparatus for the study of elastic extension in muscle by means of a scale of weights, and the myograph or muscle-writer as simplified by Pfliiger, in which a lever is made to trace the degree of elastic tension on a plate of smoked glass. Another contrivance for determining whether contraction does or does not take place is the muscle-telegraph, specially arranged by the French *savant* for experiments during his lectures in connexion with an induction coil. What he calls a tetanizing key is further used as a test of the tetanic action or enduring contraction of a muscle, as distinct from a sudden and spasmodic shortening or pulsation. By calculating the height to which a given weight is raised by a muscle when set in motion it becomes possible, on mechanical principles, to express in figures the amount of labour accomplished, the weight being multiplied together with the height to which it is raised. In fig. 15 is shown a scale resulting from a series of experiments thus made. To measure the sum of work accomplished by a number of separate pulsations, an ingenious apparatus has been invented by Herr A. Fick, which he calls a labour-accumulator (*Arbeitsammler*). At each pulsation a slight amount of muscular work is found to have been lost, having, it is thought, been converted into heat, which is shown by other experiments to be generated, as is also electricity, by every muscular exertion. Another interesting phenomenon is the audible sound or note given out by muscle when contracted in tetanus, though seemingly quiescent. A deep buzzing sound called the muscle-note is heard through an ear-trumpet. Helmholtz has shown that each irritation of the muscular fibre corresponds with a sonorous vibration; and by the height of the muscle-note, tested by what is called Wagner's hammer or an electric wheel, the number of irritations which are required to keep up a given amount of contraction may be determined. About eighteen or twenty vibrations per second seem to be the nearest approach to the normal muscle-note heard during voluntary contraction, which corresponds closely to that produced under the condition of tetanus.

Besides the audible creaking that science has been able to make manifest in the living machine, there are certain chemical processes involved in the operation of muscular contraction and excitation to which Helmholtz, Du Bois-Reymond, and other physiologists have given attention, though it is difficult at present to assign to them a quantitative value. Such constituents of muscle, for example, as are soluble in water are found to decrease under contraction, whilst such as are soluble in alcohol increase. An acid (probably a lactic acid, *Fleischmilchsäure*) is generated when the muscle is active. Quiescent muscles also contain a certain amount of a starch-like matter, called *glycogen*, part of which, as Nasse and Weiss have shown, is used up during the activity of the muscle, being transformed into sugar and lactic acid. Our author adds the fact that carbonic acid is generated in the muscle by its contraction. All these chemical changes are capable of producing warmth and work, the amount of which it would be easy to indicate with suitable apparatus. We have, indeed, no adequate means of examining albuminous bodies, the chief constitution of muscle, or of appreciating the changes which go on in living tissues, subject, of course, to the universal law of the conservation of energy. With regard to the nitrogenous constituents, however, we have an approximate measure in the amount of excretory matter, which corresponds very closely to the amount of work performed. Some practical remarks of value are here appended by our author bearing upon the relation of food to muscular work. Most of the experiments upon which is based our knowledge of the structure and functions of muscles are necessarily worked out from portions of tissue after the general life of the animal is extinct. Not a few, however, of the most interesting phenomena are exhibited by operations upon the living body. Du Bois-Reymond's apparatus (fig. 56) indicates clearly the deflection of the magnetic needle by the mere will of the manipulator, an electric current being set up by the voluntary contraction of the muscles of one arm, the groups of muscles in the two arms when at rest being symmetrically arranged, cancelling each other. Muscles and nerves have an important difference from all other tissues of the animal body in the class of phenomena which they have in common, as regards the electric actions which proceed from them. Experiments with the galvanometer have done much towards assigning a quantitative measure to the currents involved in muscular and nervous energy. We may measure, on the one hand, the effects produced upon a portion of muscle or nerve when traversed by an electric current; or, on the other hand, the deflection of the needle under the action of living tissues, especially in the case of animals possessed of high electric organs, such as the torpedo. The altered condition of a nerve when artificially charged with electricity, called the *electrotonus* of the nerve, is discussed at some length by Dr. Rosenthal, his experiments resulting in the final law that excitement of the nerve depends on a change in its molecular condition, occurring as soon as such a change is effected with sufficient speed. The same law, he remarks, in all essential points holds good with muscle; but the molecules of muscle are more sluggish than those of nerve, transient influences having upon them but little effect. The electro-motive force in both differs not so much in kind as in degree, existing, in fact, not in animals alone, but in vegetable tissues, as Darwin and Burdon Sanderson have shown in *Dionaea muscipula* and *Mimosa pudica*. Experimental proof is thus to be had of the degree to which such force is bound up with life itself.

* *General Physiology of Muscles and Nerves*. By Dr. I. Rosenthal, Professor of Physiology in the University of Erlangen. With 75 Woodcuts. London: C. Kegan Paul & Co. 1881.

Our author has thus far paid attention to such nerve-cells only as are in connexion with muscles, and by the activity of which the appropriate muscles are rendered active, referring incidentally only to other kinds of nerves. He proceeds towards the end of his book to consider how far the experiences we have gained of motor nerves and the views based upon these experiences are applicable to the vaso-motor and secretory nerves, and more particularly to the more complex and mysterious phenomena of the sensory nerves which, when irritated, give rise to sensations of light, heat, sound, and so forth. Whether these nerves are homogeneous in themselves with the kinds previously spoken of is by no means certain. Still harder is it to understand what are called the retardatory nerves (*Hemmungs-nerven*). The heart is commonly known as a muscle which beats ceaselessly during life. Yet if a certain nerve which enters the heart is irritated, the heart ceases to beat, its beat beginning again when the irritation of the nerve is discontinued. This remarkable phenomenon was spoken of by Weber, its discoverer, as retardation, a curious case of a nerve by its activity being able to still a muscle which is in motion. Now it is quite impossible, our author shows, to detect differences in these different classes of nerves, either by anatomical observation under the microscope or by experimental tests of any kind. In their bearing to irritants they are not found to vary, and the electro-motive effects are the same in all. We can only explain the difference in their action as due to their connexion with terminal organs of various form. From a series of thoughtful investigations into the phenomena of reflex nerve action in relation to sensation and consciousness, some valuable conclusions are arrived at which sum up briefly what our author claims to have made good:—

From all these details it is very evident that the nerve-fibres are homogeneous the one with the other, and that the difference in their effects is to be referred to their connection with nerve-cells of varied form. This seems, however, to be opposed to the fact that the different sense-nerves are irritable by quite different influences, and each of them only by quite definite influences—the nerve of sight by light, the nerve of hearing by sound, and so on. It would, however, be a mistake to infer from this that the nerve of sight is really different from the nerve of hearing. If the matter is examined more closely, it appears that the nerve of sight cannot be excited by light. The strongest sunlight may be allowed to fall on the nerve of sight without producing excitement. It is not the nerve, but a peculiar terminal apparatus in the retina of the eye with which the nerve of sight is connected, which is sensitive to light. The case of the other sense-nerves is similar; each is provided at its periphery end with a peculiar receptive apparatus, which can be excited by definite influences, and which then transmits these influences to the nerves. On the difference in the structure of these terminal apparatus depend which influences have the power of exciting them. When the excitement has once entered the nerve it is always the same. That it afterward elicits different sensations in us, depends again on the character of the nerve-cells in which the nerve-fibres end. Supposing that the nerves of hearing and of sight of a man were cut, and the periphery end of the former were perfectly united with the central end of the latter, and contrariwise that the periphery end of the nerve of sight were perfectly united with the central end of the nerve of hearing, then the sound of an orchestra would elicit in us the sensation of light and colour, and the sight of a highly coloured picture would elicit in us impressions of sound. The sensations which we receive from outward impressions are therefore not dependent on the nature of these impressions, but on the nature of our nerve-cells. We feel not that which acts on our bodies, but only that which goes on in our brain.

It is to the specific energy of the nerve-cells that we must refer the different sensations of which we are conscious. At the same time, we must guard against the idea that in the complex form in which these impressions now present themselves to our consciousness they are to be accounted for by such primary and direct action of the nerve-cell upon the sensory organs. It is only by continued experience, based upon the correlation of sensations, not only often repeated, but drawn from the specific action of more than one order of sensory motors, that our perceptions of objects outside us are built up. The impression of distance, for instance, is not gained directly from the action of the lens of the eye, and to an infant it is long unknown. We think we see a man a certain way off. Really, however, we only feel a picture of a certain size of the man on our retina. We learn to know by experience what is the average size of a man and how much the apparent size decreases with the distance. Moreover, we feel the degree of contraction of the muscles of our eye which is necessary to direct the axis of our eye to the object and for the adjustment of our eye to the necessary distance. From all these circumstances, our author makes it clear, the complex opinion which we erroneously regard as a direct sensation is formed. Upon fundamental facts such as these he is able, with reason, to contemplate the building up in the future of an experimental system of physiological psychology.

THROUGH CITIES AND PRAIRIE LANDS.*

WE are not of those who maintain that a route, when once it has become well travelled, should never again be made the subject of description. So long as the traveller can bring a fresh and eager mind to the work, so long as he has a quick eye for all that is striking, and is well skilled in the art of telling what he has seen, he may be justified in writing an account of a tour that extended no further even than from London to Paris. Without these qualifications, however, he is sure to be dull, even if he has to tell of a journey from Timbuctoo to Tobolsk, or from Siberia to Siam. But when he invites us to accompany him on a familiar route where there is nothing in the subject to make up in some degree for his

deficiencies, then the result is disappointing enough. We have nothing to learn from him, for he has only been where thousands have been before, and he has nothing to tell that can satisfy us by the mere charm of its narration. He had not prepared himself for his travels by years spent in his study, and he had never learnt that it is one thing to scamper over a continent and quite another thing to write a book. To this class of travellers, we regret to say, the author of the volume before us belongs. She is one of those who may be said to run and write. She and her pen travel at a great rate and an equal pace. Her readers, with even the best will in the world to keep up with her, soon find themselves left far behind. For while she never rests, they are scarcely able for half an hour together to keep awake. Were it not for the happy power they have of making long and frequent skips, we greatly doubt whether they would not be left so far behind that they would utterly despair of reaching the goal that she sets before them. The title of her work is somewhat misleading. She certainly has been through prairie lands, for she has crossed the United States from the Atlantic to the Pacific and from the Pacific back to the Atlantic; but then she has travelled always in the steamship or the railway car. A traveller who went by train from London to Inverness might almost equally well describe his journey as one Through Cities and Fields, Moors and Mountains.

The book opens with Euston Square Station. Fortunately it takes but one page to bring us to Liverpool. There we find "the sun blooming, like a flower of light, in the bright blue skies." It was in July that the author started. Had it been in April the sun no doubt would have been budding, while in September we should have found it mellowing, or even dropping its leaves or petals. Why must a lady write nonsense merely because she goes to Liverpool on a fine day in summer? Not only was the sun blooming, but "the soft balmy air was laden 'with the briny kisses of the great sweet mother.'" Three pages later we come a second time upon these briny kisses and the great sweet mother, and that, too, though the sun was not, so far as we are told, blooming. But to return to Liverpool. The "stentorian lungs shouted 'all for the shore,' and departing friends and relatives swarmed down the steep wooden wall of the vessel." The wooden wall is, we suppose, a poetical flight, for it is of iron that the Atlantic liners are built. This, indeed, would seem to be implied a little further on, where the author writes about "our huge iron-hearted home." Perhaps, however, the iron heart is nothing but the engine and the boilers. Be that as it may, the vessel started and steamed majestically up (*sic*) the Mersey. This course ought to have taken it up to Warrington, and even to Manchester, but somehow or other it brought it into "the obnoxious Irish Channel." There, when night came on, our author writes, "we seemed to realize the fact that we were alone on the wide world of waters—the same living restless waters whereon Christ had walked, and whose waves he had bidden 'Peace, be still.'" Surely, if she does make the Mersey run up into the sea, she does not confuse the Irish Channel with the Lake of Genesareth. But her use of Scripture is at times peculiar. Thus she is describing how people of all nations meet in the streets of San Francisco. "We are jostled on one side," she writes, "by a Polish Israelite in whom there 'is no guile' with a long beard and high-peaked hat. A moon-faced Mexican . . . walks in his shadow." Just as many people now can never do anything simply "to the end," but only "to the bitter end," so Lady Duffus Hardy, it would seem, finds it difficult to mention the word Israelite without adding "in whom there is no guile." In another passage she describes an old priest who had the simplicity of a child. "Whether he possessed the 'wisdom of the serpent' I query—though how that interesting reptile has proved its claim to wisdom I fail to comprehend." But we must return from our digression to the voyage. "My first idea," she writes, "was to take a survey of my fellow-passengers. There were plenty of them; as a rule, they were mere common-places specimens of humanity, such as nature turns out by thousands, with no distinctive marks, but merely labelled 'men' and 'women.'" So pleased is she with this piece of writing, that she makes use of it again when she describes her fellow-passengers in a Pullman car. "As a rule, they are simply common-places, such as nature manufactures by millions and turns out merely labelled men and women, with no special characteristic except their sex." Poor things! they had never learnt to say that the sun blooms in July, or that a huge iron-hearted home steams up a river into the sea. They could even be content to see "the gilded glories of the saloon" without writing about them, nor could they have understood what our author meant when she wrote that she was "gliding calmly over the 'wild Atlantic waves,' which were rolling round us on all sides as far as the eye could reach, a world of palpitating waters, unruffled and smooth as the bosom of a lake."

When the ship is fairly out at sea, the sun, if it no longer blooms, at all events sets, as, indeed, it far too often does in this narrative. Did we not feel too kindly disposed towards our readers, we should inflict on them the seven sunsets which we have counted; for all we know, there may be some which have escaped our search. They are all cast very much in the same mould, and he who has read one will have just as much, or just as little, idea of what the author means as he who reads them all. The first is as follows:—

That evening we had a splendid sunset; the whole of the western skies were draped with crimson, lighted up with flames of gold. We watched its kaleidoscopic glories change; one brilliant colour fading into and

* *Through Cities and Prairie Lands: Sketches of an American Tour.* By Lady Duffus Hardy. London: Chapman & Hall, Limited. 1881.

amalgamating with another, till the whole horizon was a gorgeous mass of rose-tinted purple and green and gold, which presently broke up, and drifted, and re-formed till the pale dim skies were filled with floating islands of fire.

In the second and fifth descriptions we have "a glory of crimson, purple, and gold, fading and changing, one colour amalgamating with another," and "feathery plumes of crimson, isles of amber, and pale amethyst cloudlets changing and amalgamating their gorgeous hues till they form one brilliant cavalcade of coloured glory." In the second, third, fourth, sixth, and seventh descriptions we have "gorgeous crimson plumes"; "a rapid mingling of amethyst and royal purple, like the jewelled mantle of some invisible King, with feathery plumes flying"; "the Western hemisphere draped with crimson clouds slashed with flames of purple light"; "ragged banners and broken bars of gold streaming through the darkening skies"; and "the western skies clothed with the barbaric splendour of crimson, amethyst, green, and gold." In spite, however, of the sunsets and of the author's fine words, we do reach America. In fact, measured by pages, her account of the voyage is really brief. But when we land we do not find ourselves any better off than we had been at sea. A dinner knife and fork are, at the first meal on shore, called "eating utensils," and a song that was liked by a company of people is described as being "a mutual favourite." At Quebec "the air bristles with church spires, like drawn swords flashing in a holy battle, pointing upwards." That spires, whether at Quebec or elsewhere, should point upwards is nothing out of the common, but that things that bristle can be like things that flash is what is not easy to believe. From Quebec she goes up the St. Lawrence in a palatial steamer. She sees on the shore some Indians, and, when she looked on them, she "felt there might be some truth in Darwin's theory, after all." She takes a railway journey, and thus describes how the passengers passed their time:—

Meanwhile we amuse ourselves, each according to his or her fancy. One woman sucks oranges all the way, another "clucks" and makes zoological noises to amuse her rebellious offspring; the young tourist looks unutterably bored, and plays the "devil's tattoo" on the window; somebody perfumes the car with the odour of peppermint drops. The old ladies enter into a conversational race, and discuss their private affairs in a most audible voice, taking the whole car into their confidence.

The author travels in the States, and at night passes the Alleghany Mountains, "which on this occasion wear a crown of jewelled flames leaping in lurid fury upon the dusky night." She arrives at Chicago, and goes to "a palatial hotel, built by Mr. Potter Palmer, for the luxurious entertainment of the travelling public. . . . Each suite of apartments is . . . richly curtained and carpeted, with luxurious lounges and the easiest of easy-chairs. . . . The spacious halls and corridors are furnished in accord with other portions of the house." She goes to Salt Lake City, and hears "the low flute-like wailing voice of the *vox humana*" of a big organ. The voice of a *vox*! She arrives at San Francisco, and finds there a kaleidoscope company that makes up an incongruous gathering. Moreover, "every crustaceous delicacy the sea affords is there, all ready to tempt the appetite of omnivorous man." She drives through "a silent sea of yellow sandhills, smooth and soft as velvet, billowing round in graceful, undulating waves." For all we can see, she might just as well have written "a smooth sea undulating round in billowing waves," or "waving round in undulating billows," or "undulating round in waving billows," or "waving round in billowing undulations." There she breathes "the crisp, soft air, laden with three thousand miles of iodine." A few chapters further on she again breathes "the briny breeze, laden with three thousand miles of iodine." She describes the Chinese quarter of San Francisco. "The very bowels of the earth, it seems, are riddled and honeycombed by these human moles, who, like the ghost of the murdered Dane, can 'work in the dark.'" The metaphors are somewhat confused—bowels riddled, and at the same time honeycombed, by human moles who are like a ghost. The word *mole*, no doubt, suggests Hamlet's father. Our author, we assume, means to quote from the line "Well said, old mole! canst work i' the earth so fast?" She pays a visit to a lady, and is shown "her poetical kitchen, with no signs of prose about it." In one corner was a stove with bright brass knobs, "polished to the highest point of polishing, like a black prince with 'gilded honours thick upon him.' His fiery eye was closed; he had done his work, and was at rest. From the bowels of this gnome had been conjured the dainty repast which awaited our attack." Has any one's dinner ever before come from the bowels of a gnome that was like a black prince, with one fiery eye, and that closed? She passes into Colorado. "It is now the 12th of April," she writes; "there is a bright blue sky, warm, balmy sunshine . . . but there is not a flower to be seen, nor the twitter of a spring bird to be heard anywhere." Five pages later on she writes:—"The skies are intensely blue, the air flooded with sunshine. Not the twitter of a bird is to be heard, not a tree is in leaf, not a flower in blossom, and it is late in April." She goes to Washington. Its founder's design, she says, "has resulted in the production of one of the finest residential cities in the world." She describes the Capitol, "high and mighty in its pure architectural glory," and tells how its "beautiful white dome, with its graceful spire, is silhouetted against the bright blue sky." She goes to see Mount Vernon, where she finds living in the slave quarters the descendants of the slaves of the Washington family. "They are," we learn, "a very superior and obliging class of people, and provide

an excellent lunch for visitors, at a very moderate cost." She sees an electric machine "surrounded by scintillating sparks of weird greenish light, playing round it as though some fiery genie was confined therein." Even if there were a dozen fiery genies confined we do not know why their sparks should be scintillating. It would be just as reasonable to say that their scintillations were sparking, if there happened to be such a word.

Her American tour ends where it began, in Quebec. She sees those spires that a year before had pointed upwards now "gilded, pricking the pale morning sky." She embarks on the steamship, and finds "the decks swept and garnished for the advent of the coming passengers." Decks used to be swabbed and holystoned in the old sea-novels. But the writers had not Scripture terms at their fingers' ends, or no doubt theirs, too, would have been swept and garnished. We doubt, however, whether they would have gone so far as to fall into "the damnable iteration" of "the advent of the coming passengers." We are, at all events, under one obligation to our author which we hasten to acknowledge. She parts with us an hour afterwards as the ship steams down (not up, as if it were the Mersey) the mighty St. Lawrence. She might have kept us till the close of the day, and described her eighth sunset. As some return for the mercy shown us, we gladly acknowledge that her book is likely to be much enjoyed by that large class of readers who trouble themselves but little about a writer's meaning, so long as they get a big supply of fine words, with just enough sense in them to satisfy their notions of propriety, and not so much as to tire their understandings.

WATSON'S KANT AND HIS CRITICS.*

WE know nothing of the constitution or condition of the Canadian University in which Professor Watson is a teacher; but if all its chairs are as well filled as that of Moral Philosophy the learners can have little to complain of. The present work is, to our mind, decidedly the best exposition of Kant which we have seen in English. We do not commit ourselves to placing Professor Watson above Professor Green or Professor Caird in actual philosophical power. But we do think his manner and method are more lucid than theirs, at any rate with respect to the reader who approaches the Critical philosophy from the point of view of English psychology. And, since a considerable proportion of English readers of such works may be expected to meet the writer from that point of view, the fitness of the exposition for the instruction of such readers is a material element in determining its merit. In trying to give an account of Professor Caird's work on Kant when it came out we felt ourselves swimming in an ocean of Anglo-German or German-English transcendental terms, with islands of solid ground standing out here and there, or perhaps we should say rafts floating and spars drifting, *rari nantes in gurgite vasto*. With Professor Wilson we feel on solid ground almost always, though it may be steep. There were many passages of Professor Caird's where we felt points of sympathy without being able to take firm hold of them. We could have agreed with him if we had been quite sure what he meant. In Professor Watson's criticism we find many points of definite agreement, and more of common understanding as to the nature of the questions in issue, which may sometimes be quite as important as a final agreement, or even more so; for what look like the same conclusions in philosophy may turn out to have been reached by radically different methods.

Professor Watson's general position may be not unfairly described by saying that he is more Kantian than Kant himself. He holds that Kant made a great advance in metaphysical method, and that English philosophy, on the whole, has not yet come abreast of Kant, but remains in the bonds of dogmatism which, for those who take the pains to understand him, Kant has shattered once for all. And this applies to the empirical school as much as to any other. For empiricism, in so far as it holds itself out as a substitute for critical analysis, is only dogmatism in a new dress. Accordingly, Professor Watson takes certain English writers as representing the sceptical and the empirical views, and maintains in detail, as against their objections or systems, the necessity and the value of Kant's work. This part of the book, though in form a critical examination of what is said in opposition or rivalry to Kant by Mr. Balfour, Mr. Sidgwick, G. H. Lewes, and Mr. Herbert Spencer, amounts to an exposition of Kant's theory of knowledge for the special benefit of readers whose philosophical training has been chiefly in the English school. If this were all, the work would be well worth doing, and being, as it is, faithfully and lucidly done, would be worthy of praise; and this whether we agreed with Kant and Professor Watson against the critics in question or not. For we must admit in any case that the method of Kant deserves to be understood, and that the student who has not attained some understanding of it is without the key to modern philosophy. This we say for those who believe that philosophy is a serious study, having a continuous history and a real development. Philosophy has its circle-squarers as well as geometry, and we may go a wool-gathering after them if we like. Some few years ago a Mr. Kirkman, because he knew some mathematics (probably no more than Kant knew, after all), and

* *Kant and his English Critics: a Comparison of Critical and Empirical Philosophy.* By John Watson, M.A., LL.D., Professor of Moral Philosophy in Queen's University, Kingston, Canada. Glasgow: James Maclehose. 1881.

had somehow hit on a kind of crude form of Fichte's Absolute Egoism, thought himself qualified to prove Kant a "maker of metaphysical mud pies"; for which and other like feats he was proclaimed a notable philosopher by Cardinal Manning. But life is too short for the discussion of such vagaries. To return to Professor Watson, the expository part of his work, good as it is, is by no means all. He goes on to speak on his own account, and has much to say that is well worth hearing. In his exposition there are hints and anticipations of coming criticism, which, however, is studiously reserved. Once free to criticize, Professor Watson tells us how much of Kant's work he thinks imperfect, and why. He holds that Kant did not fully apply his own method; that, coming out of the bondage of dogmatism, he was forced to use its instruments, and unconsciously remained under its influence in many particulars; and that the *Critique of Pure Reason*, especially the theory of knowledge, is no complete and harmonious system, but the embodiment in stubborn matter of a spirit by whose help Kant's successors may, and must, freely correct the letter. Just as it was impossible for Descartes to free himself at one bound from the Schoolmen, so it was impossible that remnants of dogmatism should not cling about Kant. In such cases Professor Watson would have us not seek for refined defences, and invent saving distinctions, but appeal frankly from Kant's shortcomings to Kant himself. This is the true and fruitful way of studying philosophy; not to get a master's doctrines by rote, but to grasp his ideas at the centre and test by them, if need be, his own results. Professor Watson's plan, then, is twofold; first to lead the reader up to Kant's point of view, taking Kant's doctrine, provisionally, as we find it; and then to encourage him to stand on Kant's shoulders and see as much more as he can. An advantage of this plan, besides those we have already mentioned, is that we are not left in doubt (as Professor Caird now and then left us) whether we are to read the text as a statement of Kant's actual doctrine, or of what his doctrine, if consistent, ought to have been.

Professor Watson begins the first or defensive part of his work by taking up Mr. Balfour as the champion of pure scepticism. It will be remembered that in his *Defence of Philosophic Doubt* Mr. Balfour set his hand against every man with delightful vigour and impartiality, and against Professor Green and Professor Caird among others. Professor Watson's main point in reply to Mr. Balfour is that it is not the business of philosophy, as conceived by Kant, or as it ought to be conceived, to prove in any ordinary sense the truth of either our common knowledge or the contents of special sciences. Philosophy is not the acquirement of new possessions, but the analysis of that which is already possessed in experience. "Kant invariably assumes the truth of the mathematical and physical sciences, and only asks how we are to explain the fact of such knowledge from the nature of knowledge itself." This point is in itself a thoroughly sound one, and it is of the first importance that it should be explicitly made by teachers of philosophy, and clearly apprehended by learners. We have not room to consider whether Mr. Balfour's criticism is thereby completely and at all points disposed of; nor, indeed, would this be much to our purpose. The victory is to both parties, for Mr. Balfour has done well if he has done no more than give an adequate occasion for expounding a leading principle. In like manner, we shall in other cases care more for what is made good for its own sake than for what may be made good controversially as against this or that opponent. The critical or analytical conception of philosophy—or, as we prefer to say, metaphysic—exposes it to the preliminary question of common sense. If metaphysic does not add to the contents of our positive knowledge, what is it good for? This is a serious question, and must be faced; but there is, as we hold, a complete answer to it. Reduced to the shortest possible terms, the substance of this answer is that at worst metaphysic is good to prevent us from taking false knowledge for true, on the one hand, and being scared by false limitations of our knowledge on the other. In other words, if the value of metaphysical criticism should turn out to be purely negative, its value is great notwithstanding. Kant's masterstroke is to have put this critical function of philosophy on an assured footing. That is his established achievement and title to greatness. Whatever else of his work may stand or fall, this will not fall. The extent of Kant's success may be measured in one direction by the diminution since his time of the estrangement between the transcendental and the empirical philosopher. So long as man's knowledge of the world was regarded as something that came to him ready made, and philosophers disputed whether it was from the inside or from the outside, there was not much prospect of even a rational agreement to differ. Kant taught us to regard knowledge as something constantly in the making, a function of the activity of the mind which transforms the first impressions of sense into an orderly world. He developed, in Professor Watson's words, "the theory that intelligence constitutes known objects instead of passively apprehending them." The proposition thus stated would have been denied by the empirical philosophers of the eighteenth or early nineteenth century. We doubt, however, if any competent empiricist would categorically deny it now. He might deny it with an explanation, as by saying that he does not admit it in the transcendental sense. But an absolute denial would be at least misleading, seeing that in modern psychology the constructive activity of the organism in sensation is a well-established fact. Our whole and continuous experience is demonstrably built up out of broken and discontinuous impressions. We see more than falls on the eye, and hear more than falls on the ear. This

working up of the raw material of sense belongs, of course, to a different sphere from Kant's analysis. It is held by Mr. Shadworth Hodgson and Professor Watson that Kant erred precisely in carrying over into the region of pure analysis things which belong to psychology and are capable of scientific determination. Yet even Kant's philosophical error, if such we count it, contains no small argument of his scientific prescience. And it is something towards the reconciliation of the natural history of knowledge—"Physiologie des menschlichen Verstandes," as Kant aptly called it—with its metaphysical analysis, that the conception of knowledge as an active process is familiar to students in both kinds.

Professor Watson goes on to discuss with Mr. Balfour and Mr. Sidgwick the Kantian theory of *a priori* conditions of perception, and in particular the "Refutation of Idealism" in the *Kritik*. On the whole, we agree with Professor Watson's interpretation; but we cannot be surprised that conflicting views are taken. Kant is obscure both in the conduct of his argument and in his use of language. The *Ding an sich* which, as he maintains, is postulated by the mere fact of self-consciousness, is an ambiguous term. We think, as Professor Watson does, that it means not a *Ding an sich*, but a thing within the field of possible experience, not something unknowable, but something knowable. In that case, however, Kant does not refute Berkeley's idealism; for Berkeley never denied the reality of external things in that sense, or said that experience was possible without them. Kant's speculation goes beyond Berkeley's, but does not contradict it. And all that his argument really proves, assuming its validity, is that in order to constitute real experience there must be some constant form of perceptions besides time. In other words, we cannot conceive of conscious beings whose perceptions are under the formal condition of time alone; but we are free to conceive of beings whose perceptions are under the conditions of time, and of something else not imaginable, though conceivable, by us, which is analogous to space. The conception of higher dimensions of space itself is in much the same case. Thus Kant implicitly establishes a generic distinction between Time and Space which, so far as we are aware, he nowhere else pursues. The more general features of Kant's theory of knowledge are well stated by Professor Watson in the following passage:—

The dogmatist, while assuming that our knowledge is absolute or real, yet imagines that it can be obtained by means of mere conceptions; the sceptic maintains that conceptions cannot possibly yield reality, and hence he denies that there is any absoluteness in knowledge. Kant agrees with the former that we have a knowledge of actual existence, and with the latter that from conceptions as ordinarily understood no explanation of the possibility of such knowledge can be given. Evidently, therefore, the reality or absoluteness of knowledge must be preserved by showing somehow that there are conceptions which do not lie apart from real objects, but are essential constituents in them. But to do this we must change our view at once of the nature of real things and of the nature of conception. The transformation is partly effected in the *Ästhetik*, where it is shown that known objects are not things in themselves, but are relative to our consciousness. Existence and knowledge thus begin to come nearer to each other. If the existence that is real is existence in and for consciousness, things may be real and may yet be relative to our knowledge.

"The existence that is real is existence in and for consciousness"—such is the fundamental truth of metaphysic seen by Kant, but seen only in part. But we must not anticipate Professor Watson's final criticism.

One of the most interesting chapters is that on the Relations of Metaphysic and Psychology, where G. H. Lewes's theory of knowledge is discussed. The criticism comes shortly to this:—that Lewes's doctrine, when all is said, is a newer and more elaborate form of the old endeavour to make psychology, which is a special empirical science, take the place of metaphysic, which is the general analysis of knowledge itself. It is a natural history of the growth and processes of knowledge in the individual, and, as such, a great deal of it is very good. But it is a natural history of events taking place in a world assumed to be already known; "it has no occasion to ask how knowledge is possible." We find in the individual certain organic conditions of sensation and knowledge, and these may be said to explain, for scientific purposes, how *his* knowledge is possible. The metaphysical problem remains just where it was. You may reduce the scientific expression of the process to a function of certain elements, and you may call those elements, or the complex arrangement of them which gives the function in its simplest form, by the name of "sentient material," or what else you will. You may use materialist or spiritualist language according to your convenience. But you have constructed a scientific hypothesis, not a metaphysical one, neither have you banished metaphysic. Kant is waiting for you still, and you must begin with him again at the beginning, or improve on him in his own line if you can. The conditions of perception we find in the individual organism, as matter of observation and experience, may correspond in some sort to the general conditions of knowledge which Kant finds analytically in consciousness. But this is no more than on Kant's view we might expect. Kant fully recognized the value of empirical psychology, and had no intention of supplanting its work by short cuts *a priori*. The *Critique of Pure Reason* "is an exposition of the constituent elements which we may logically distinguish in knowledge, not an account of the order in which our knowledge is developed in time." We must admit, however, that Kant is not steadfast to himself in this. It is difficult to follow his construction of Categories and Schemata without the impression that he does regard the human mind as a machine with "faculties" for its working parts, and thinks he is describing the actual process by which it makes knowledge out of

the materials wherewith it is fed by the senses. But such a description is psychology, not metaphysic; and if and so far as Kant aimed at such a description he failed, as his method was psychologically worthless. For psychology as a science the Categories and Schemata are merely fantastic machinery, and of no more service than the crystalline spheres of Ptolemaic astronomy.

Professor Watson's criticism of G. H. Lewes is equally valid, in its main points, as against Mr. Herbert Spencer; but Mr. Spencer's view of nature is the subject of a separate argument. And, considering how many English and American students take their philosophy chiefly from Mr. Spencer, this is by no means superfluous. By way of introduction Professor Watson gives an account of Kant's "Metaphysic of Nature" (*Metaphysische Anfangsgründe der Naturwissenschaft*), a work that goes over much the same ground as Mr. Spencer's chapters in "First Principles" on the ultimate conceptions of physics. We have no difficulty in allowing that in these matters Kant is far more satisfactory than Mr. Spencer. In some points he anticipated the latest methods of scientific exposition, as in making a special department of the science of pure motion under the name of *Phoronomy*, which corresponds exactly to the *Kinematic* of our present masters in physics. But as to Mr. Spencer we must demur to the statement that his "theory may be taken as representative of all that is most valuable in the empirical philosophy of nature of the day." Professor Watson would have some difficulty in finding any person competent in mathematical physics, of whatever school of philosophical opinion, who would consent to be represented by the doctrine of "First Principles." Two or three eminent mathematicians have criticized Mr. Spencer pretty sharply on his "Persistence of Force," which, whatever it may be, is not the Conservation of Energy which is known to science. This appears to have escaped Professor Watson's notice, otherwise he would hardly speak of the "persistence of force" as if it were an undoubted scientific truth.

As to Mr. Spencer's philosophical explanation, Professor Watson contends that he assumes the thing to be explained. Mr. Spencer derives the notion of time from experiences of sequence, and the notion of space from experiences of co-existence. As an account of the production of the concepts of time and space in this and that particular intelligence, this may be very well. But in describing individual experiences of sequence and co-existence, we assume the real existence of a world independent of intelligence, or at least of any particular intelligence. We take over our data from the world of common sense, in which we quite properly accept our normal phenomena as realities, and "tacitly assume that the world we know is the world as it really is—the world as known by everybody else." But the problem of metaphysic, ever since Kant took it in hand, is to analyse these very data. Nor does the addition of heredity and evolution make any difference. The experience of the race, like the experience of the individual, is a series of events taking place in the world of phenomena—the world which science assumes and philosophy tries to explain. Accordingly Mr. Spencer's procedure is characterized by Professor Watson as a "method of accounting for the intelligible world by ignoring intelligence." In a chapter on "The Distinction of Noumena and Phenomena in Kant and Spencer" Professor Watson enjoys the polemic luxury of making short work of the pseudo-Kantian fallacies about the Unknowable which Mr. Herbert Spencer in an evil hour adopted from Sir William Hamilton. In one sentence he puts the point in a nutshell:—"If every attempt to think 'being out of relation' results in failure, why not give up the attempt, and conclude that there is no 'being out of relation' to think?" Unfortunately the whole history of philosophy shows that the enterprise is a most alluring one to ambitious minds.

This and other remarks of Professor Watson's have already indicated the line he takes in criticizing Kant himself. Like Mr. Shadworth Hodgson, he considers that Kant, if thoroughly true to his own ideas, would have identified that which is real with that which is knowable, and made a clean sweep of things-in-themselves. The abolition of things-in-themselves entails many simplifications in the Kantian analysis. Time and space are no longer forms imposed upon, and in a manner veiling, things which have some kind of reality without them, but become "relatively abstract relations of the real world." The contrast maintained by Kant between perceptions and objects perceived vanishes in the same way, for there is no longer a crude matter of sense "given" to us by or out of an unknowable world. Again, the distinction of a *priori* and a *posteriori* elements loses its importance, and all real relations of things are seen to be equally necessary. Space fails us to do justice to this part of Professor Watson's work, but we cannot too strongly commend it to the limited number of readers who can relish well-sustained metaphysical argument.

THE PRIVATE SECRETARY.*

THE *Private Secretary*, which appeared originally in *Blackwood's Magazine*, is published anonymously, nor does the author lay claim on the title-page to any previous works. Nevertheless, this very clever novel was evidently not written by a novice. In every chapter it bears the signs of practised skill and matured literary judgment. The style is clear and vigorous. Effective situations

are ingeniously devised to bring out in bold relief the characters who play the leading parts. The plot has been constructed with great care, and the increasing interest is sustained to the end. It strikes us that the author has borrowed his manner of treatment from the French school, and some of the most effective of his situations are questionable according to English notions; but he extricates himself from his self-imposed embarrassments with invariable tact and delicacy. He is a man of the world who indulges in *tours de force* in which inferior artists might undoubtedly be seriously compromised. And if he has formed himself to some extent after French models, he is no imitator or plagiarist. The novel is original from first to last; and in nothing is it more original than in the main idea which is expressed in the delusive title. We had imagined that the *Private Secretary* was probably an aspiring clerk from the Foreign Office, attached to the fortunes of some eminent statesman. We expected a tale of political intrigue, of social manœuvring in high places, or perhaps of some sensational personal career which landed the hero in celebrity through a series of struggles and successes. The reality is as different as possible from any of our fancies; and we are as much taken aback in being presented to the heroine as was Mr. Robert Clifford, who is the hero of the novel, when he first made the acquaintance of Miss Hilda Reid. For the Secretary is a young and fascinating girl, who answers an advertisement of Clifford's when in search of a situation. But Clifford, as we see him, is the very man to be made the victim of a designing woman; and the question that naturally exercises us from the first is whether Hilda Reid is as single-minded as she appears to be. He is young, clever, and rich, but almost a recluse. Privately educated, and kept dawdling away his existence from year to year under the roof of the eccentric uncle who ultimately leaves him his property, Clifford enters on a London life with neither associates, knowledge of the world, nor experience. He wants occupation, and seeks it as a philanthropist, who is drifted about on generous impulses, and is perpetually changing his expensive hobbies. He occupies handsome chambers, and is waited upon by a respectable old housekeeper, with a female aide-de-camp. We may conceive how the feminine establishment is fluttered when the young and rather attractive Miss Reid is installed as secretary to their master. But Miss Reid's conduct is beyond reproach, and she shows herself subsequently as much a woman of business as in the preliminary interviews that led to her engagement. She keeps herself to her own place and her private room; meets her employer as man to man over the details of her daily tasks; and tacitly gives him to understand, like the virgin guest sent by the genii as instructress to the necromantic Baron in the German tale, that she will vanish at the first semblance of familiarity.

Whether Miss Reid is as prosaic and unsusceptible as she seems to be is for some time a secret between her and the author. As to Clifford's feelings we are not left so long in doubt, though naturally he endeavours to act the hypocrite with himself. It was by no means a case of love at first sight; for Hilda, though of fascinating appearance, seems hardly to have been strictly beautiful. And we should imagine that her manner was an additional safeguard to her, since it was so thoroughly self-possessed and businesslike as to be antipathetical to a grand passion. But Clifford, who has really nothing to do, although he manages to create a vast amount of business, necessarily lets his thoughts wander to the room where his pretty secretary sits almost within call. He makes errands to discuss some urgent detail; he stops his visits capriciously to see what may be the effect of his absence; but, all the same, he shows a thousand delicate attentions which assuredly would never have entered his head had the new secretary been "a great, lubberly boy." Hilda, who, as it happens, is unusually intelligent, must have been the dullest of girls had she not speedily perceived the interest she excited in her staid employer. The inevitable result follows. Clifford falls deeper and deeper in love; and Hilda, who thaws to him at last under the flattering warmth of his attentions, is persuaded to acknowledge that he is not indifferent to her. It must be added that he had given her unmistakable proofs of the ardour and sincerity of his attachment. It is not only that he showed himself extremely generous to her relatives when he had once discovered them, for a certain recklessness in money matters was of the essence of his impulsive nature. But he learned to tolerate as objectionable a pair of acquaintances as ever disenchanted a hesitating lover. There is no more amusing character in the volumes than the parent whom Hilda has the privilege of supporting. Captain Reid is a veteran who drapes himself with dignity in the memories of an imaginary past, who manages to preserve his self-respect by never admitting an obligation, and who, moreover, is a master in the art of writing begging appeals under plausible pretences of conferring a favour. He practises upon Clifford most inopportunistly for Hilda. But Clifford forgives the father for the daughter's sake, and even, although with some amount of natural loathing, goes the length of extending a hand of friendly patronage to her slangy and selfish brother.

It is then that the author gives his story the delicate turn which reminds us of some of the most popular French authors. Hilda has owned her love, but Clifford too has an awkward confession to make. They may love if they please, but they cannot marry, unless, indeed, they are to begin the world again as paupers. It seems that Clifford had received his fortune under pain of forfeiture unless, in the event of his wedding at all, he consented to wed a cousin of his own, always supposing that young lady to be

willing. Should he unite himself to anybody else, the property goes to Miss Blanche Scallan. And just as the term is approaching when the condition will lapse should the Scallans not appear to claim its fulfilment, the Scallans arrive in London from America. They are of the type of showy American *parvenus*, who lavish the money that has been lightly come by, and who, though they are capitalists to-day, may be dollarless to-morrow. They are almost more ignorant of society in London than Clifford himself, and are fortunate in finding a gentleman willing to introduce them to it, in the person of the Honourable Captain Burrard. Clifford has been dazzled by his cousin's beauty and daunted by the marvellous Transatlantic self-possession which is in a very different style from that of Hilda. Having fixed his affections elsewhere, he has no desire to make Blanche's charms his own, and he soon begins to cherish the hope that she has as little fancy for the match as himself. Scallan appears to be enormously rich; Blanche is his only daughter; and the Honourable Captain Burrard, who becomes marked in his attentions, would in many respects be a far more eligible connexion. Unluckily Scallan is on the brink of ruin, and a rich settlement for his daughter is of the last consequence. Clifford sees that there is no honourable escape from his dilemma, so he decides at last on making dishonourable proposals to Hilda. He pleads the difficulties of his situation, somewhat exaggerating them; endeavours to justify an illicit connexion on the specious ground of necessity; and promises to do his utmost to make it as little painful as possible. Hilda's virtue is too strong to yield at the first assault. She admits a certain force in her lover's reasoning, but refuses characteristically. She does not indulge in an outbreak of high-flown indignation, and, indeed, we are given to understand that she is by no means a very religious young woman; she simply declines, and withdraws, for the time, from further temptation, by cutting the interview short. Afterwards, on reflection, and on seeing how wretched Clifford will be made by her decision, she reconsiders it and sends him a significant invitation to come to her. The pair leave for the Continent in company, where they are to live together under a feigned name. By one of the strangest of coincidences, whom should they meet on board the Channel packet but the Honourable Captain and Mrs. Burrard, starting on their wedding trip? The Captain had persuaded Miss Scallan to elope; and, had Clifford only been less impatient, he might have led his Hilda to the altar without insulting her purity or bringing a stain on her fame. As it is, he is not married, and Miss Scallan is; so the fortune he has clung to need never be forfeited. But he feels himself bound to shield, so far as he can, the reputation of the woman who has risked her good name for him. He impulsively assures Burrard that he is married, and consequently that he had married before his cousin; thereby preparing for himself much future trouble with claimants to his property, trustees, lawyers, &c., and introducing besides a series of the most ingenious complications in the story. Perhaps the most admirably managed of these is one in which he lays Hilda under a heavy load of imaginary gratitude for a chivalrous piece of self-sacrifice of which he never was guilty; and then, having accepted her gratitude on false pretences, has his secret betrayed, to the imperilling of their happiness. She forgives him, of course, and all ends happily. She lives rich and respected, even by the few who were necessarily admitted behind the scenes in the earlier acts of her love-drama. And moralists might say that her deliberate lapse from virtue deserved retribution in one form or another, and that her story should hardly be a case where "all's well that ends well."

THE SPEAKER'S COMMENTARY.*

THIS very considerable and, on the whole, very creditable work is gradually approaching its completion. The instalment recently published contains all St. Paul's Epistles, from Romans to Philemon inclusively, leaving that to the Hebrews, of which the authorship is doubtful, and those of St. James, St. Peter, St. John, and St. Jude, together with the Apocalypse, for a final volume. We congratulate the able and learned editor of the whole series, Canon Cook of Exeter, on the successful progress of his arduous task. The faults as well as the merits of this *Commentary*, of which we have spoken on several former occasions, are as conspicuous in the volume now before us as in others of the long series to which it belongs. If, on the one hand, the several writers display sufficient knowledge, sound criticism, and indefatigable perseverance, on the other hand they are too studiously moderate in the views which they are allowed to express, and are nevertheless in too little accord with one another, for their joint work to be a really trustworthy guide to Biblical students. Too many hands have been engaged on the work, and the editor has not always been able to work up the contributions of writers of unequal acquirements and varying sympathies into a fairly harmonious whole.

Since we noticed the preceding volume of *The Speaker's Commentary*, which contained Dr. Westcott's most valuable and exhaustive annotations of the fourth Gospel, the Company of Revisers of the English New Testament appointed by Convocation

have given to the world their long-expected recension of the English text. We do not wonder that Canon Cook was at once surprised and annoyed to find that the Revisers had taken no notice whatever of their coadjutors, or rather predecessors, in the same field of criticism—the eminent divines who had been engaged on the four Evangelists and the Acts in this *Commentary*. This feeling was expressed by him at the time in a temperate letter. The omission of any such recognition is the more marked because, as may be seen on the title-page of the several volumes of *The Speaker's Commentary*, "a revision of the translation" was one of the special objects of the undertaking. We can only say that, while any lack of courtesy or of sympathy on the part of those engaged in a common work of this kind is deeply to be deplored, the scholars who are responsible for the amended translations of *The Speaker's Commentary* are, in our judgment, not a whit inferior to their Westminster rivals. And we have no doubt whatever that all the real benefits of a revised text, without any of the dangers likely to result from the unsettlement of men's minds about the general accuracy of the familiar Authorized Version, could have been obtained by all who cared to seek for them in the notes of *The Speaker's Commentary*. Above all, the innumerable tasteless alterations, in matters of no importance, which disfigure the Revised Version have no place in this scholar-like work. But all necessary corrections are made. And the general agreement between these corrections and the Revised Version is, we may add, in all respects satisfactory. We proceed to give some account of the volume now before us.

The first contributor is Dr. Gifford, who has supplied the general introduction, the commentary, and the critical notes on the Epistle to the Romans. We find his work, on the whole, meagre, dry, and unsympathetic, distinctly inferior, especially in respect of the drift and object of the Epistle, to Gode's treatment of the subject. But many points of detail are illustrated by him with sufficient learning. There is a careful note, for instance, on the word "Propitiation," or (as Dr. Gifford would read it) "Propitiatory," in Rom. iii. 25, which only wants some reference to the Christian altar, as representing to us what the *Caporeth* of the Holy of Holies typified to the Israelites, to make it thoroughly satisfactory. In Rom. xii. 8, "He that giveth, let him do it with simplicity," Dr. Gifford anticipated the Revised Version by translating the last word "liberality." Of the two Epistles to the Corinthians, the First has been assigned to Canon Evans, Professor of Greek in the University of Durham, and the Second to the Rev. Joseph Waite. We are much taken with the former. It is terse and abrupt in style, and full of humour and quaintness. If this commentator seems to take a keener interest in the language than in the matter of his subject, yet all that he says is worth hearing. His paraphrases, in particular, are often very instructive. Very happy is his note on 1 Cor. xi. 10, about "the woman having power on her head"—a veil, that is, as a sign of her subjection. Mr. Evans quotes in illustration the line from *Macbeth*, "Present him eminence both with eye and tongue." We turned to 1 Cor. ii. 9 to see if any explanation was offered of St. Paul's presumed quotation from Isaiah of the beautiful passage, "Eye hath not seen, nor ear heard . . . the things which God hath prepared for them that love Him." Mr. Evans does not notice the fact that only the ideas, but not the exact words, can be found in the prophet. But the very words are embedded in the most ancient Greek Liturgy; whence some have not unreasonably thought that St. Paul was really making the citation from a liturgical formula, which would thus be shown to be actually of apostolic date. In 1 Cor. xiv. 10, Mr. Evans would read, with the margin (but not the text) of the Revised Version, "Nothing is voiceless," instead of "None is without signification." The commentator's note on this passage, too long unfortunately to be quoted, is a typical example of his matter and style. In the same chapter the insertion of the definite article, "*The Amen*" (adopted also in the Revised Version), very much emphasizes the fact that the Christian Church, following the Jewish custom, had from the very first adopted the practice of concluding the public prayers with this response. The great Fifteenth Chapter of this Epistle, on the Resurrection of the body, is prefaced by a most valuable and eloquent introduction. We quote one passage from it of much interest:—

No doubt from v. 22 to v. 29 we have the contents of one of St. Paul's superabundant revelations disclosing to our view a dim perspective of long æonian reaches, extending from our Lord's Resurrection to His Parousia and stretching away beyond the Parousia over a period of conflict with spiritual principalities and dominions, which results in their complete subjugation and then ushers in the *telos* or end. In a few touches the prophet presents to the gaze of the Church outlines rising beyond outlines of a stupendous future—a vast stretch, and no more, that may be filled up in detail only when the Parousia shall belong to the Past, and the *then* of apostolic presentiment shall become the *now* of Christian experience.

Mr. Evans does not call attention to the rudimentary Creed which is to be found in vv. 3 and 4 of this same chapter. He throws much light on the difficult passage, "What shall they do that are baptized for the dead," by the argument that the preposition *ὕπέρ* does not merely mean, as is commonly supposed, "in behalf of," or "for the benefit of," or "in the place of," but rather "with respect to," or "with an eye upon," or "with the mind over"—in other words, "in relation to"; implying that the only idea of the vexed passage is that baptism has a direct relation to the resurrection of the dead. This is very ably discussed in a long additional note, in which this sense of the preposition is shown to be common in the Greek Fathers; and the same elliptical use of "for" is paralleled from Shakespeare. "To such lengths,"

* *The Holy Bible, according to the Authorized Version (1611); with an Explanatory and Critical Commentary, and a Revision of the Translation by Bishops and other Clergy of the Anglican Church.* Edited by F. C. Cook, M.A., Canon of Exeter. *New Testament*, Vol. III. (pp. 884), Romans to Philemon. London: John Murray. 1881.

says Mr. Evans, "has this prepositional error led recent commentators, that actually they seem to see lurking in the folds of this text, which their own perplexities have made a mazy labyrinth (see *in loco* Alford's note of bewilderment and Stanley's prodigious inferences), a veritable Minotaur in the shape of *vicarious baptism*."

The Dean of Chester is responsible, next in order, for the Epistle to the Galatians. His notes are, as a rule, flat and insipid in comparison with those of the lively Durham professor. We turned with some curiosity to his commentary on that most perplexing verse (Gal. iii. 20), "Now a mediator is not a mediator of one, but God is one," only to be disappointed. There are said to be two or three hundred interpretations of this passage, the difficulty of which lies of course in the doubt as to the meaning of the word "one" in the two clauses. Dean Howson borrows from an unpublished sermon of Canon Evans the assertion that here "the word *one* clearly points not to *number*, but *quality*"; and this is the key to his interpretation. But an ordinary reader seeking for guidance will profit very little by this disquisition. We find the Dean of Chester, in his note on Gal. iii. 27, half-inclined, as it seems to us, to disparage Luther's high view of the baptismal sacrament. We note with greater approval that on Gal. vi. 6 he argues from the phrases "he that is taught" and "him that teacheth" that catechizing—oral instruction in religious doctrine—has been an ordinance of the Church from Apostolic days. It is a happy suggestion, on Gal. iv. 13, that the "infirmity of the flesh" mentioned by the Apostle refers to a special experience of his "thorn in the flesh," and that the companionship of St. Luke "the physician" was due in some measure to St. Paul's constant need of medical help.

The Epistle to the Ephesians has been entrusted to the Rev. Frederick Meyrick. We are glad to see that he has the courage to argue that the quotation (in Ephes. v. 14) "Awake thou that sleepest" is from a Liturgical hymn, as Theodoret was the first to point out. The quotation is introduced by the words "*He saith*," which is not altered, as it might well have been, by the Revisers into the more general phrase "*It saith*." How is it that Mr. Meyrick, writing on Ephes. i. 13 and iv. 30, does not tell his readers that the "seal of the Lord" means Confirmation? Any acquaintance with the Office Books of the Greek Church would have reminded him of this. Mr. Waite, on 2 Cor. i. 22, is equally at sea on the matter.

The Dean of Raphoe, Dr. Gwynne, follows with the Epistle to the Philippians. We think highly of his critical and exegetical skill. He is remarkable, too, for most extensive and varied reading. In his introduction, for example, we find him quoting a despatch of Lord Salisbury's after the Congress of Berlin, in order to show the importance even in our own days of *Caesarea* (the ancient Neapolis), the seaport of Philippi, where St. Paul must have landed. He cites also Lord Macaulay from the *Edinburgh Review*, and even borrows illustrations from the Offices of the Church of Sarum. Dr. Jeremie, the late Dean of Lincoln, had left, it seems, some notes on this Epistle, which are mostly given with the initial "J" subscribed. They are, however, worth but little, and need scarcely have been printed. We are glad to see Dean Gwynne making constant references to a most valuable specimen of modern Cambridge scholarship, Mr. Swete's edition of the commentaries of Theodoret of Mopsuestia. Is there not, we may ask, much to be said for considering the phrase "your messenger" (*lit.* "apostle") as applied to Epaphroditus, in Phil. ii. 25, to imply that he was the Bishop of Philippi? This was Theodoret's opinion, and few ancient commentators surpass that Father in accuracy and sound judgment. So, too, Luther of old, and Bishop Lightfoot in our own times, have concluded as to the ecclesiastical rank of Epaphroditus from the fact that in Phil. iv. 3 St. Paul calls him his "true yokefellow."

We come now to what is by far the most brilliant section of the volume before us. The Epistle to the Colossians, the two Epistles to the Thessalonians, and the short Epistle to Philemon, have all been annotated by the Bishop of Derry. The introduction to the first-named Epistle is a singularly beautiful and poetical disquisition, sound in its theology, animated in style, and bearing marks of the most wide and varied culture. We may note in particular a reference to the singularly interesting Christian churches still remaining in Thessalonica, some of them now used as mosques. The Bishop's authority in this matter is, however, only Sir George Bowen's *Mount Athos, Thessaly, and Epirus*. He does not seem to have made acquaintance with M. Texier's splendid volume on the Churches of Thessalonica, edited by Mr. Pullan. Turning from architecture to music, we find an admirable additional note on the "psalms and hymns and spiritual songs" of Col. iii. 16. The Bishop here pleads earnestly for the artistic excellence of the Church's song in public worship. He contends that the Apostle's phrase "singing with grace" means "gracefully," or with sweetness and beauty. It is the less surprising to find him, as being a hymnologist himself, quoting, on Col. i. 18, the Septuagesima hymn of the Ancient Latin Church for the sake of its theology. Unlike some of his coadjutors, the Bishop of Derry never fails to give a plain and sound exposition of difficult passages. Nothing, for instance, could be better than his notes on "the first-born of every creature" (Col. i. 15), as against any Arian or Socinian exposition of the phrase. Again, he anticipated the Revisers in omitting the words "of the Father," and reading, with Bishop Lightfoot, "the mystery of God, even Christ," in Col. ii. 2. This rendering, we need not say, conceives the word *Christ* to be in apposition grammatically with *mystery*. Bishop

Wordsworth had adopted a less satisfactory rendering—"the mystery of God, Christ." Bishop Alexander has found in the exquisitely pathetic and beautiful Epistle to Philemon a most congenial subject. His whole treatment of this epistolary masterpiece is admirable. He has spared no pains in his task, which has evidently been a labour of love. Every collateral suggestion bearing on the Epistle is thoroughly discussed and examined. We may specify, as remarkable for its force and eloquence, his description in the introductory observations of the horrors of Roman slavery. There is an instructive plea for the existence of material churches even in the earliest Apostolic times, suggested by the phrase "the Church which is in thy house." We note here, however, that the general editor has not remembered that, while the Bishop of Derry translates *ἐν τῷ οἴκῳ*, in Acts ii. 1 and 44, "to the same place," Canon Evans in this same volume denies any local meaning to the phrase in that passage, which he explains as meaning there "for the same purpose."

It only remains to say that the three Pastoral Epistles, to Timothy and Titus, are briefly annotated by the Bishop of London, while an excellent general introduction is provided to them by Professor Wace. The Bishop, we observe, dwells strongly on the spiritual graces, the *charismata*, of Holy Orders. He considers "the laying on of hands" of Heb. vi. 1 to mean ordination. But surely the context of that passage, in which laying on of hands is connected with baptism, and in which both ordinances are reckoned among "the principles of the doctrine of Christ," points to Confirmation rather than to Ordination as having been in the Apostle's mind at that time.

The volume of *The Speaker's Commentary* which we have now noticed is undoubtedly a most valuable addition to the series. We could have wished, indeed, that there had been more unity of view and more equality of critical power among the several contributors. But, at any rate, this important *Commentary* improves, rather than deteriorates, as it approaches its completion.

THE CANNIBAL ISLANDS.*

THE recent visit of the King of the Sandwich Islands to this country makes any work which throws light upon the people and geography of the Pacific Islands welcome at the present moment. The great interest shown for, and the cordial reception given to, one whose predecessors were but a few years ago nothing better than petty chiefs of barbarous cannibal tribes may appear at first sight to be due only to good-natured curiosity, but it has really a certain political significance. The cutting through of the Isthmus of Darien is now only a question of time, and when that work is accomplished the strategic and commercial advantages of the Pacific Islands will become a matter of serious concern both to Europe and America. There can be no necessity to conciliate, from a diplomatic point of view, the petty potentates themselves, but the mere existence of friendly relations with them may hereafter exercise a beneficial influence in preventing possible rivalries and jealousies on the part of greater Powers.

The volumes before us give a graphic account of one of the best known of these groups of islands, in the form of letters written to friends at home. Although this style of composition is generally rather wanting in literary finish, it has its advantages in presenting fresh and graphic pictures of the scenes and life described. The domestic arrangements for an English family in Fiji are not all that can be desired. At Levuka everything is dear and bad, but the servants are the worst of all—they are even a greater plague than the race at home. Looking very intelligent, they prove utterly stupid, neglect their work the moment their employer's back is turned, and, though "indifferent honest," cannot resist the temptation to steal towels and handkerchiefs for articles of attire. As it would be perfectly proper for them to use things belonging to their own chiefs nothing must be said to them, but the practice is, we should imagine, rather inconvenient.

The strange lack of lower animal life is one of the most remarkable peculiarities of these islands, and accounts in a great degree for the cannibalism that was formerly so prevalent there. There were no indigenous four-footed creatures but rats and flying foxes, and even the pigs which now run wild in some of the jungles were brought there by the Tongans, who also introduced cats, ducks, and fowls. The names of the other animals, *seepi* (mutton), *goti* (goat), *bullama kow* (beef), are sufficiently indicative of their origin. Venomous reptiles are fortunately unknown, but a trap for the unwary exists in the tree-nettle, a large forest tree of magnificent foliage, the leaves of which when touched administer a sting, the burning anguish of which endures for days. The *kaukaro*, or itch plant, is another strange and dangerous growth:—

Instances have occurred [says the author] when a man, having ignorantly selected this wood, either as timber from which to fashion his canoe, or a spar suitable for his mast, and incautiously sitting on the wood while carpentering, has discovered when too late that the subtle poison had entered by every pore, and that his whole body was rapidly breaking out into angry spots, causing an irritation utterly unbearable and lasting for months, sometimes years.

The *yangona* root, elsewhere in Polynesia called kava, is the only stimulant the islands possess. It is prepared by chewing, and, though not pleasant to the taste, is much sought after, as its effects are peculiarly exhilarating and refreshing. Drunkenness from its

* *At Home in Fiji*. By C. F. Gordon Cumming. London: Blackwood & Sons. 1881.

use does not affect the brain, but paralyses the muscles, so that a man lies helpless on the ground perfectly aware of all that is going on around him.

The glimpses which the author gives us of the religion and beliefs of the Fiji Islanders are interesting, and possess considerable value as contributions to comparative mythology. The Kai Tholos (or Highlanders), for instance, have many legends and fairy tales which bear a strange resemblance to those of Northern popular mythology. Thus the pine forests are haunted by tiny men, called *Vélé*, with high conical heads; they carry clubs, which they throw at all trespassers, who go mad in consequence. A fern leaf carried in the hand is, however, sufficient to ward off the evil influence. The Fijian, in fact, peoples every remarkable spot, whether grove, dell, cave, or rock, with invisible beings, whom he fears and propitiates with offerings. Such a being exactly corresponds to the *genius loci* of the ancient Romans and the *jinn* or *genie* of the Arabs, familiar to us through the *Arabian Nights*; and the existence of the superstition shows how prone the human mind is in its infancy to adopt the same ideas all over the world. It is curious also to note the constant recurrence of tree and rock worship amongst primitive and savage tribes. The pagan races of Palestine and Syria had their sacred groves and stones to which divine honours were paid; and even now the peasants of the Holy Land and the Desert Arabs have their sacred trees and holy rocks. In Fiji we meet with the same thing, although the sacrificial customs of the Cannibal Islanders were even far greater abominations than were the unholy rites of Baal:—

The mission station in Bau must have been indeed a hateful home in those days, when you could not look down from the windows to the town below without witnessing scenes of unspeakable horror, the very thought of which is appalling; when the soil was saturated with blood and the ovens were never cool, by reason of the multitude of human victims continually brought to replenish them. Now the site of the ovens is marked only by greener grass; but an old tree close by is covered, branch and stem, with notches, each one of which is a record of some poor wretch whose skull was dashed against a stone at the temple, the foundations of which are still to be seen a few steps further on. The tree is the sole survivor of a sacred grove which, like that at Rewa, was cut down on account of the superstitious reverence attaching to it.

The religion of Fiji was intimately connected with its rather peculiar gastronomy, and the human victims sacrificed to an idol or devil were invariably eaten. No important ceremony of any kind could, indeed, be performed without this horrid accompaniment, and the records of the earlier missionaries who were eyewitnesses of these atrocities reveal an amount of inhumanity and savagery that is almost incredible. We read, for instance, in an account of the town of Rewa—

Jackson (an Englishman who, thirty years ago, was detained amongst these people for two years) relates an incident of peculiar interest, as an illustration of sacrifice to the earth-spirits—a custom which British antiquarians tell us was formerly practised by our pagan ancestors, and of which traces have till very recently lingered among us. A new house was about to be built for the chief, Tui Dreketi, and the people assembled from all tributary villages to bring their offerings and dance and make merry. A series of large holes were dug to receive the main posts of the house; and as soon as these were reared, a number of wretched men were led to the spot, and one was compelled to descend into each hole and therein stand upright with his arms clasped round the pole. The earth was then filled in, and the miserable victims were thus buried alive, deriving what comfort they might from the belief that the task assigned them was one of much honour, as ensuring stability to the chief's house. The same idea prevailed with respect to launching a chief's canoe, when the bodies of living men were substituted for ordinary rollers—a scene which Jackson also witnessed, and quotes to prove how cruelly the tributary tribes were treated by these Rewa chiefs, one of whom he accompanied to a neighbouring isle. They came to a place called Na-ara-Bale (meaning "to drag over," literally corresponding to our own Tarbert), a low, narrow isthmus joining two islands together. By dragging the canoes across this half mile of dry land, they were saved a long row round the island. On landing they found the villagers entertaining the people of another village which had fallen under the displeasure of Rewa, and at the bidding of the chief these people allowed their guests to be surprised in the night, when forty were captured, and each being bound hand and foot to the stems of banana trees, were then laid as rollers, face uppermost, along the path by which the canoes were to be dragged across the isthmus. The shrieks of the victims were drowned by the howling songs of their captors, and, with one exception, all were crushed to death. One poor wretch lingered awhile in torture till the ovens were made ready in which all were cooked, the guests of the previous day affording the feast for this.

Only those who had been killed were considered good for food, but the Fijians had right royal banquets whenever a battle had taken place. Thus, in Namena, in the year 1851, fifty bodies were cooked for one feast; and when the people of Bau were at war with Verata, they carried off 260 bodies, seventeen of which they sent to Rewa just as presents of game are sent out after a battue here. A wooden fork was made use of in eating human flesh, as it was supposed to cause a skin disease. One of these instruments is figured on the cover of the work. The custom of public dinners on a large scale has survived the heathendom of the place, and is as much a public institution in Fiji as it is in the city of London. At a great meeting of chiefs at Bau, in January 1880, on the return of Sir Arthur Gordon to England, the *menu* included 104 pigs and a large shark roasted whole, the latter being a substitute for the *bokola* or human meat of cannibal days. The taste for the latter delicacy still survives, and one young chief, being asked by Miss Gordon Cumming whether the manner of preparing human flesh was not different from that in which pork was cooked, misunderstood the question, and answered with suspicious unction, "Oh! there's no comparison between them—human flesh is so much the best."

But the tales of earlier cannibalism are not the only horrors which mar these otherwise pleasant pages. The islands were visited

with an epidemic of measles, which proved as dreadful a scourge as any recorded plague of Europe or the East. This sad event marked the beginning of the British rule. The old King, after ceding the islands, went to Sydney to pay his respects to Sir Hercules Robinson, and there caught measles. The disease spread rapidly, and, owing partly to the impossibility of isolating the patients or adopting any sanitary measures whatever, it developed into so terrible a plague that in a short space of time one-third of the whole population died. A war with some revolted tribes also varied the monotony of the author's stay in the islands, and the English officers had several opportunities of establishing the fact that cannibalism has not yet quite died out.

In 1867 the Reverend Thomas Baker and seven Christian missionaries were murdered and eaten at one of the islands. It is a curious fact that no less than six villages now lay claim to the possession of the martyr's head. This reminds us of the Holy Land, where the head of St. John the Baptist is preserved at Samaria, Damascus, and Aleppo. Perhaps nothing brings more forcibly home to us the circumstance of the wonderful reform effected by Christianity than that it should have taught such savages to act upon its concisely formulated protest against all these inhuman barbarities in the command to "do as you would be done by," for now these frightful customs have almost entirely ceased. Indeed, it is hard to realize that a people so friendly and gentle as the Fiji Islanders are now described as being, and amongst whom so earnest and childlike a devotion to Christianity seems to prevail, could have taken part only a short time ago in such fearful crimes and orgies. The present King of Fiji, Thakombau, to whose enlightened and energetic conduct the success of missionary enterprise in the islands and their ultimate transfer to British rule is due, was not always the exemplary character he is now reported to be. The first fifty years of his life were passed in the deepest darkness of cannibal heathendom, and when his father, a terrible old chief, died, Thakombau exercised the privilege of an eldest son, and with his own hand strangled his mother and assisted in performing the same kind office for the other widows. King George of Tonga also played some part in the conversion of the islands. This monarch, by the by, is the one who amused his white friends at the breaking out of the war between France and Germany by issuing a proclamation that he intended to remain neutral.

As the picturesque record of a sojourn in little known lands, and a thrilling account of customs which are happily becoming things of the past, *At Home in Fiji* is a very interesting and readable work.

LETTERS AND PAPERS OF THE REIGN OF HENRY VIII.*

(Second Notice.)

WE learn from the despatch of the Imperial Ambassador, of which we gave some account in our last article, that Dr. Lee was of opinion that nothing could be done in the matter of the divorce if the Queen persisted in her allegation of virginity at the time of her marriage with the King; and also that the Duke of Suffolk and his wife, the Queen-Dowager of France, would, if they dared, have offered all possible resistance to the marriage. Anne Boleyn, though she had yet to wait she knew not how long—and, in point of fact, did wait nearly a year and a half—before she was actually married, must have been pretty sure of her ground. She seems to have exercised an absolute sway over the King, and actually at this time threatened the Controller of the Household that when she was Queen she would deprive him of his office. The volume we are reviewing reaches beyond the date of the marriage. But it contains not one word of suspicion that it had taken place. The remarkable expression in Cranmer's letter that the marriage ceremony was performed "much about St. Paul's day" has misled all historians, who suppose that he must have intended the Festival of the Conversion of St. Paul, January 25, 1533. But it is almost certain that he meant St. Erkenwald's day—i.e. November 14, 1532—on which Sanders and others have said the marriage took place. The Pope's Breve warning the King on pain of excommunication to dismiss Anne and take back Catharine was dated the very next day; but it was too late, Anne was already married, and the concealment of the day was meant to allow of the supposition that she had been married at any previous period which might be conjectured by any curious inquirer.

The phase of the case for the divorce which occupies nearly the whole of this volume is the protest of the King of England against being summoned to Rome for its trial. It is very dreary work following the history of the consistories held, and the technical difficulties in the way of admitting Sir Edward Carne in the capacity of Excusator. Several of the documents connected with this part of the case appeared for the first time in the Oxford Records of the Reformation; but probably nearly every accessible paper on the subject will be found in Mr. Gairdner's volume. But, though we suppose the editor was not bound to insert every document that has appeared in print, it would have been more convenient if he had added the few documents that are supplied in the Trevelyan Papers, as also the account of the Acts Consistorialia, as published by Dr. Maziere Brady in his useful work

* *Letters and Papers, Foreign and Domestic, of the Reign of Henry VIII.* Preserved in the Public Record Office, the British Museum, and elsewhere in England. Arranged and Catalogued by James Gairdner, Assistant Keeper of the Public Records, under the Direction of the Master of the Rolls and with the Sanction of Her Majesty's Secretaries of State. Vol. V. London: Longmans & Co. 1880.

on "the Episcopal Succession of England, Scotland, and Ireland, A.D. 1400 to 1875." It would have added but a few pages to the volume, and would have in one or two cases supplied information not to be found, or at best only to be found with difficulty, as to the dates and proceedings of the Consistory Court at Rome. Thus the letter of February 13, from Ghinucci and Benet to the King, was, no doubt, intended to give the earliest intelligence that it had been determined not to admit the Excusator; but we only learn, from the following extract from Dr. Maziere Brady's volume, that the refusal was made the very day before:—

Die 12 Februarii 1531 fuit Consistorium in loco consueto in quo Reverendus D. Paulus Capissuccius retulit quendam Anglicum comparuisse tanquam unum de populo ad excusandum Regem Anglie eo quod non comparebat in causa matrimonii.

And this is the more important because, in a letter written by Mai to the Emperor of the same date, he speaks of this Consistory having been held on the 10th. Two accounts agree in placing it on the 10th, and it is possible the copy from which Dr. Maziere Brady printed was in error.

Again, there is an entry in the Barberini MSS. concerning the Consistory of December 11, 1531, which shows that Dr. Gairdner's conjecture that Christmas must be read for Easter in Mai's despatch to the Emperor, which is dated on the following day, is correct. The delay it appears was really granted till the Festival of the Epiphany, 1532, and accordingly the next Consistory was held on the 8th January. Mai's despatch was in Spanish, and in all probability the word used is *Pascua*, without the addition of *de Natividad*. It was not an uncommon mode of designating Christmas at that time in Spain. We remember that Don Pascual de Gayangos found the same expression in one of the documents analysed in his last volume, and translated it *Easter*, though it plainly meant Christmas.

Matters were now drawing to a conclusion. Everybody except the English Ambassadors saw that the judgment could not be delayed much longer, and that sentence must be pronounced against the King. On the 25th January, 1532, Dr. Ortiz informed the Emperor that the English had petitioned for delay on the ground that fear of the Emperor prevented the advocates whom they had written for from appearing, and that they had been allowed till the end of the month, and that the Pope had told him he was determined to give sentence "even though the Kings of France and England should separate from the Apostolic see." On the very same day Clement wrote to the King of England a gentle letter of remonstrance, hoping that he would not oblige him to forsake the character of a loving father and assume the function of a judge; but that he would recall Catharine to his Court and put away the woman with whom he was openly cohabiting. Another despatch of the period speaks of Anne Boleyn having recently had a miscarriage; but, as the document in question was not written from England, it only gave currency to a report, and must be taken for what it is worth. Notwithstanding all appearances, the disputes about preliminary matters were destined to delay the cause for many months, nor was it till March 23, 1534, that the definitive sentence was pronounced which ordered the King to take back Catharine as his wife on the ground that the marriage was valid. Here, however, we are anticipating matters, as the volume before us does not reach beyond the end of the year 1532.

One naturally expects to find in such a volume as this some tidings of the future Archbishop Cranmer, about whom opinion seems of late to have taken a turn—State papers seeming to reveal to us the character of a time-serving hypocrite, instead of a saint and a martyr. But, though there are so many documents analysed from the originals at Vienna, they do not tell us anything that was not tolerably well known before; and this is the more remarkable because he was with the Emperor as Ambassador during the year 1532, from January till November, when he was recalled, for the express purpose of pronouncing against the marriage with Catharine of Aragon. He is noticed as on his way home at the beginning of 1531, and as succeeding Sir Thomas Elyot as Ambassador in the following year. He had reached Ratisbon where he met Elyot, March 14, and he is still there August 28 and September 4, from whence he was recalled October 1, when Hawkins was substituted in his place. On October 20 he was at Villach, and evidently had heard nothing of Warham's death. And it was not till November 18 that the letter of recall reached the Emperor, with whom he was residing, at Mantua. On his way home he was ten leagues off from Lyons December 9, and must have reached England some time before the end of the year 1532. The meeting of the King and Cranmer at the bear-baiting, when the archbishopric was given him, must, if the story be true, have taken place almost immediately on his arrival. The documents in this volume enable us to determine the whereabouts of Cranmer during the whole year, and so to expose the errors both of Strype and of Herbert. The former represents Cranmer as not returning to England at all in 1531, and the latter makes him present at the marriage on November 14. Cranmer himself tells us he did not know of the marriage a fortnight after it had taken place. And, in point of fact, he could hardly have heard of it till his arrival in England, more than a month after.

With regard to this subject we have been sorely puzzled by a note appended to Chapuys's despatch to the Emperor of January 22, 1532. The passage in the letter is as follows:—

The new Ambassador to the Emperor will start in a few days. Does not know why they are discontented with the present Ambassador. This man

is one of the doctors who was at Bologna with the Earl of Wiltshire, on whom and his daughter he depends entirely. He has written in favour of the divorce and was one of the translators of the King's book. Expects he will be ordered to obtain opinions from the German universities whether Lutheran or otherwise. If he has no better future than the Augustinian Lutheran whom the King caused to come here with a safe conduct, he will not do much. The said Lutheran returned as he came with much ill-will from the English.

Now all this evidently refers to the recall of Sir Thomas Elyot and the substitution of Dr. Thomas Cranmer in his place as Ambassador with the Emperor. The matter is so evident that we should not even have expected a note at the foot of the page to explain who was alluded to; but undoubtedly a reference to this place ought to have appeared in the index under the head of "Cranmer," instead of which we have a note substituted saying, "It does not appear that any new Ambassador was really sent to the Emperor for some time after this date." It is true, the letter of credence for Cranmer, dated January 24, does not appear in this volume or elsewhere that we know of. But it is mentioned by Sackendorff, and it is plain from other documents in the volume that Cranmer started on his journey a very few days afterwards towards the Court of Charles.

There were rumours abroad that the King had married his mistress, "that diabolical woman," as Muxetula calls her; but it was not commonly believed, and it must have been known that it was not so when she was raised to the rank of a Marchioness on September 1, 1532, preparatory to her accompanying the King across the Channel to his interview with Francis. The French King was of course nothing scandalized at the nature of the connexion of his dear brother of England with Anne Boleyn, but must have wondered at the infatuation of the persistent desire to make her his Queen.

The interview of the two Kings was conducted on the grandest scale, almost recalling the glories of the Field of the Cloth of Gold. But Henry did not gain all he wanted by the interview. Mr. Gairdner truly remarks in his preface that as a great demonstration of the close alliance between England and France the interview was undoubtedly a success. He has described the state of affairs very neatly:—"If Francis could have been induced to recognize the favourite as Queen of England, Henry no doubt would have been emboldened to defy the censures of the Vatican. But Francis, though not an over-scrupulous person in what concerned mere social morality, was not likely to countenance an open violation of Church law in defiance alike of the Pope and the Emperor, merely for the sake of his most dear brother and ally. He was willing enough to dance with the Marchioness of Pembroke; but to dishonour the Emperor's aunt by acknowledging any one as Henry's queen was a responsibility he could not have been willing gratuitously to incur" (p. xxviii.)

There are many other points in this volume well worthy of study for any one who is tolerably acquainted with the outline of the history of the period. Most people will probably have to unlearn much of what they have been taught to believe by popular historians, for if there is any period in English history that has yet to be written, it is undoubtedly the history of the reign of Henry VIII. from the fall of Wolsey to the accession of Edward VI.

CREDULITIES.*

UPON Mr. Jones the mantle of the late Mr. Timbs appears to have fallen. Mr. Jones may be proud perhaps to be named in the same breath with Mr. Timbs, though, in good truth, we do not intend to compliment him even when we add that the pupil is worthy of his master. The material here gathered is tolerably amusing. We do not often find so much of the kind garnered between two covers. Of numberless authors cited, each brings his own little bundle of rubbish; and it is reserved for Mr. Jones merely to provide a store for it. Unfortunately, to carry out the parable, the stuff has not been arranged in the storehouse, and, should the authors desire to get it back again, they may not find it easy to know their own. Here and there a passage is duly labelled; but even the labelling is often defective, and is sometimes, so to speak, second-hand, betraying a fact in the history of some particular pieces. They have passed through one store after another, until their original inventors have been forgotten. There may be some kind of object in these storehouses of useless knowledge. Many books which pretend to be collections of prehistoric facts intended to throw light on the manners, bad or good, of modern mankind, are little better than Mr. Jones's book on Credulity; but, as a rule, there has been some philosophical system pursued, and the pigeon-holes of the store-room are arranged in an intelligible sequence. In the volume before us there are clear divisions, and each chapter is itself subdivided, but the apparently purposeless mixture of different kinds of facts, and the absence of anything like an adequate index, render it useless to the student. The very first requirement of such a book is a full and correct index. To test Mr. Jones's compilation, after reading a number of scattered notes in different places on, for example, the superstitions connected with Thursday, we find that the word "Thursday" does not occur in the index. Again, there is a curious and lengthy list from a French source of the judicial prosecutions of animals for crimes in the middle

* *Credulities; Past and Present.* By William Jones, F.S.A. London: Chatto & Windus. 1880.

ages. This list occupies pages 303-305, and is duly entered in the index. Some thirty pages further on is a similar list from a Flemish source, *à propos* of nothing in particular, and there is no mention of it that we can find in the index. The index itself is in a sense alphabetical, but a majority of the entries are under such headings as "Luck," or "Superstitions," and are arranged much as they come. It will be seen that in order to make any use of the book the reader will be obliged to make his own index, and the more so because the paragraphs are put into pages just as they were shaken out of Mr. Jones's portfolio, care only being taken to keep certain general subjects together. Thus one page begins with an account of an ancient ceremony of sheep-blessing, performed apparently in London, but this is not very clear; the second paragraph relates to the worship by the Romans of Pales, the goddess of sheepfolds; the third mentions Baal Zebub as the protector of the people of Ekron from gnats; the fourth mentions the tutelary deities of Olympia, Elis, Troy, and other places; the fifth gives us a quotation from Plautus as to the sacred pigs of the ancients. It will be seen at a glance that this is very amusing reading, but that it would be impossible to make any serious use of such mixtures.

There is a certain kind of arrangement discernible in the table of contents. The sea and seamen, with various anecdotes more or less entertaining about them, take up rather more than the first hundred pages. Then come notes about miners, amulets, talismans, and rings; then words, letters, and numbers, and divination by them. The next chapter relates to the exorcism and criminal trials of animals, followed by similar extracts about birds and eggs, the volume concluding with a chapter on Luck. It is evident from this summary that we need not fear to light upon many dull pages. Nor is the book in the least dull, except to the reader who goes to it for exact or trustworthy information. But any such reader will have been warned by the frontispiece what to expect. This curious engraving, by no means badly executed as a work of art, represents "the trial of a pig at Lausanne in the fourteenth century." It is so full of anachronisms that to mention them all would be to describe the whole picture. One point will be sufficient to show its value. Three of the principal persons present wear spectacles, and a fourth uses an ear-trumpet, and this in the fourteenth century. But we have perhaps devoted too much time and space to an attempt to take Mr. Jones's book seriously. It will be better to accept it for what it is—a mere compilation of notes and anecdotes, without any object except to amuse the general reader. Viewing it in this light, and consenting to be amused only, we may find an hour's recreation in turning over Mr. Jones's pages; at the same time noting, with some surprise, that the compiler has attained an honour which was never accorded to his forerunner Mr. Timbs, as he is a Fellow of the Society of Antiquaries.

Marriages naturally occupy much space in a book devoted, like Mr. Caxton's great work, to the history of human error. Marriages in May were still considered unlucky in Italy in 1750, says Mr. Jones; to which we may add the surprising fact that 130 years later the same superstition prevailed in that peninsula, as well as in England. Sprinkling the bride with wheat is a custom mentioned by Herrick. The modern fashion of throwing rice over her seems to come from India, but it has long been common in Italy. The Registrar-General—when, we are not told—notices the frequency of Scottish marriages on the last day of the year. There are more marriages on that one day than on any other seven days put together. There may be reasons for this which the student of Scottish morals could give, but Mr. Jones contents himself with quoting the fact, as also another from the same satisfactory source—namely, that in England few marriages take place on Friday. Out of 4,057 marriages in the midland districts of England, not two per cent. were celebrated on Friday. A visit to the vestry-room of St. George's, Hanover Square, would have afforded Mr. Jones an example of the same kind nearer home. Of a contrary kind is the Scottish experience of Mr. Watson, City Chamberlain of Glasgow, who observes that nine-tenths of the marriages which come under his notice are celebrated on Friday. It is curious to note that in India a rainy day is considered unlucky for a wedding, and that in Scandinavia Thursday, the day of Thor, or thunder, was also of bad omen. St. Eloy, in a sermon, warns his flock from keeping Thursday as a holy day; and Dean Swift, in a letter to Sheridan, rhymes Thursday to "cursed day." The Esthonians consider it unlucky, and in Devonshire it has but one lucky hour. Mr. Jones, who, by the way, makes no mention of Thursday as the fatal day of the Tudors, does not attempt to generalize from these curious facts, which, indeed, we have picked out from different parts of the book. Unlucky days in Cochín China—perhaps among the Mohammedan Malays, but we are not told—are the third day of the new moon, being that on which Adam was expelled from Paradise; the fifth, when the whale swallowed Jonah; the sixteenth, when Joseph was put into the well; the twenty-fourth, when Zachariah was murdered; and the twenty-fifth, when Mohammed lost his front teeth. The ancient Egyptians were like the Chinese in their careful observance of lucky and unlucky days, and Mr. Jones may turn with profit for his next edition to Mr. Michell's amusing Calendar, in which they are detailed at length. Mr. Jones says that from ancient Egypt the evil or unlucky days have received the name of Egyptian days, given them in "a Saxon MS. (Cott. MS. Vitell. c. viii. fo. 20)." They are the last Monday in April, the first in August, and the "first Monday of the going out of the month of

December," which leaves us somewhat in doubt as to all the Mondays in that month.

The chapter on birds, though as ill arranged as any of the others, contains as many notes of interest. The ancient Egyptians, as Mr. Jones observes, denoted the soul by a bird. With this he connects "a parrot from the East, a partridge, or a goldfinch." But the Egyptian word "ba," the soul, was hieroglyphically denoted by a crane. So on the obelisk of Heliopolis "baou," the souls, or the spirits, refers to the intellectual spirits of the temple of On. In the later inscriptions a king's soul is sometimes represented as a hawk; but we have never seen the parrot from the East, the partridge, or the goldfinch. In this connexion a curious legend, well known to the readers of *Westward Ho!* is quoted from Howel's Letters as to the Devonshire family of Oxenham. Howel saw in the shop of a stone-carver a marble tomb with an inscription on it in memory of John Oxenham—"In whose chamber, as he was struggling with the pangs of death, a bird with a white breast was seen fluttering about his bed, and so vanish'd." The same story was narrated of three other members of the family. The apparition is accounted for in a ballad. The story of Thomas Lord Lyttelton, who died in 1779 near Epsom after seeing a similar vision, is well known. So lately as in 1860 a cormorant which appeared upon the spire of Boston church was believed to announce the death of the borough member. Miners appear to be more superstitious about such warnings than even sailors. A collier in South Wales saw a ghostly train drawn by a ghostly horse, one of the cars bearing what he supposed to be a spectre representing his own body. "To slight such a manifestation would be tempting his own fate. The substantial miner was apprised that a shadow had appeared without his permission, and the following day he fled from his fate to another colliery." Whistling, it seems, is not permitted in mines. Mr. Jones somewhat enigmatically adds that sailors share this superstition. He probably intends to refer to the sailor's common practice of whistling for a wind, and does not appear to be aware that in the East whistling is looked upon with disfavour, as a practice full of evil omen. One part of the chapter on mining superstitions is so characteristic of the whole volume that we may conclude by an account of its heterogeneous contents. It begins with a large capital and a new paragraph, as if to denote a change of subject, the previous division having been chiefly devoted to the superstitions of Cornish miners. The first paragraph relates to French miners, and their belief in the apparition on certain occasions of a white hare. Next there is an anecdote about their dislike to working on Sundays. Then follows a quotation from Nicander Nucius as to the colliers of Liège. So far Mr. Jones has kept pretty near the subject of French mining superstition; but the next paragraph, without the slightest warning, carries the reader's attention off to the West Indies, and then to Mexico. A quotation from Agricola follows; but Mr. Jones has forgotten to tell us to whom it relates. Finally, there is a short passage from a book by Mr. Bagshawe, to prove that Protestant miners, we are not told in what part of the world, have a superstitious veneration for the palms blessed on Palm Sunday; and so the chapter ends. It will be seen that to enjoy Mr. Jones's pages the reader must lay aside all hope of receiving consecutive information, and rest content to read notes wholly without arrangement, told without object, proving or disproving no theory or opinion, and chiefly amusing because of the unexpectedness with which a new subject is started, often before the old one is exhausted, to be itself laid aside without any reason, and perhaps taken up a few pages further on. It is impossible for a reviewer to treat seriously such a crowd of undigested, ill-assorted cuttings.

MINOR NOTICES.

THE author of the two little books about Eton life called *A Day of My Life at Eton* and *About Some Fellows* has now brought out a small volume of papers which originally appeared in the *Cambridge Review*, under the title of *Cambridge Trifles* (1). In an "Advertisement" he says:—"I republish these sketches of some of the more trifling incidents that go to make up the inner life at Cambridge in the hope that, having served to amuse the Cambridge world when issued separately and one by one, they may to some degree answer the same purpose for the public in general when taken all together." It may be admitted that in their collected form they pass muster as a thing to take up and glance at or through in an odd ten minutes or half-hour; but we cannot congratulate the writer on having collected and republished them. *A Day of My Life at Eton* was amusing, and even interesting enough, as a really accurate and unpretentious record of what many Eton boys' days are; and *About Some Fellows*, though here and there it verged upon tediousness, was no less accurate, and showed a decided advance in writing power on the author's part. *Cambridge Trifles*, though neither inaccurate nor pretentious, is unhappily for the most part very far from amusing, being neither better nor worse than the many papers of the same kind which have made their appearance at various times in the various University magazines which have flourished for a more or less brief space. The best section of the little volume is the

(1) *Cambridge Trifles*; or, *Splutterings from an Undergraduate Pen*. By the Author of "A Day of My Life at Eton," &c. Collected and revised from the "Cambridge Review." London: Sampson Low & Co.

one headed *Σπερμολόγος*, in which a fellow-undergraduate—whose nature is indicated by the title—recounts his thoughts and deeds to the author, and it is to this part of the book that we would advise the casual reader or glancer to direct his attention. In this there are, indeed, some happy touches, one of which we may select as a specimen of the whole:—"But, as I was saying, I don't think, under ordinary circumstances, it's a good thing to read much during the examination. Because it's like being in for a race; you don't go and run a course just before the race itself; you take rest and relaxation. I'm taking relaxation now; come round to see you. But be sure and say if you think you want to work. Because I wouldn't like any one to say that my system interfered with any one else's. Like that fellow Cacket, you know, who's always dropping in and wasting one's time when one doesn't want him." We may also refer to an account of *Σπερμολόγος* and his dog, which is amusing enough; but the other portions of the little book cannot be said to have enough merit to justify publication. They might, indeed, conceivably be useful as an antidote to the rubbish of "Julian Home," inasmuch as though, in their way, they are twaddley enough, they are at least not marred by sentimental cant. But it may be hoped that the author could do better work than he has here turned out if he would take trouble enough, and would learn to avoid the dangerous pitfalls of attempted smartness.

It is pointed out in the preface to the present edition of Messrs. Cassell and Co.'s French-English and English-French Dictionary (2) that the French Academy "have in the seventh and latest edition of their Dictionary introduced 2,200 words which were not in the preceding editions, suppressed some three hundred more, and modified the spelling, accentuation, and hyphens of many others." Accordingly Messrs. Cassell's Dictionary has been remodelled on excellent principles. Obsolete words, instead of being removed altogether, are distinguished by a peculiar mark, and very necessary and laudable additions have been made to the new words which the Academy in its wisdom has sanctioned, while a list of nouns of double gender with their meanings has been added. It may perhaps be doubted whether it was wise to follow the Academy in printing *phthisie, rythme* for *phthisis, rythme*, and so on; but this is a very minor point. Of the general excellence and completeness of the work there can be no doubt; and one of its most difficult features, the short treatise on French pronunciation, calls for decided praise. No such treatise can of course be altogether satisfactory, but the one before us is commendably free from errors. Between the two divisions of the Dictionary is placed a useful table of French coins, measures, and weights, reduced to English terms. In turning over the French part of the Dictionary we happened to come on a word the existence of which we have heard denied by a Parisian, although it may be seen inscribed on the windows of various Parisian pot-houses—*usquebac*—formed from *usquebaugh*. Oddly enough, it is not given as an equivalent for whisky in the English part. It is perhaps worth noticing, inasmuch as the formation of whisky and *usquebac* from *usquebaugh* makes something like a parallel to that of évêque and bishop from *episcopos*. The form *usquebac* figures in the abridgment of Boyer published in 1849.

The latest edition of Dr. Brewer's *Dictionary of Phrase and Fable* (3) may be said to be improved, inasmuch as such absurd headings as "Bird—told me, a little," have been altered, if not removed; but it still contains, which is not surprising, some things which are ridiculous enough. Under *Box*, for instance, we find "*box o' the ears*. This is the Greek *pux* (fist), a blow with the fist," and "Box and Cox, the two chief characters in John M. Morton's farce usually called [the italics are ours] *Box and Cox*." Again—and this is far more inexcusable than the absurdity of saying that a thing is "usually called" by its right name—Dr. Brewer informs us that *brosier*, a term which he explains correctly enough, is derived from "Greek *broso*, to eat." Dr. Brewer is described on his title-page as "of Trinity Hall, Cambridge." Obviously when at the Hall he did not devote himself to the study of the Greek language. It may be added that neither Dr. Brewer nor Mr. Robertson seems to have heard of an English writer named Peacock. On the other hand, there is plenty of such valuable and well-expressed information as this:—"Mephistopheles. A sneering, jeering, leering tempter. The character is that of a devil in Goethe's *Faust*. He is next in rank to Satan."

It is perhaps unnecessary here to discuss the desirableness of such a collection of snippets from classical authors (4) as Messrs. Jennings and Johnstone have set themselves to compile. It may be enough to observe that they have not shown much knowledge or judgment in their choice of translators.

The two volumes of the "Great Artists" series (5) now before us

(2) *A French and English Dictionary*. Compiled from the Best Authorities of both Languages, by Fr. Lessors De Luine and Wallace and Henry Bridgman. Revised, corrected, and considerably enlarged from the Seventh and latest Edition (1877) of the Dictionary of the French Academy. By Professor E. Roubaud, B.A., Paris. 116th Thousand. London, Paris, and New York: Cassell, Petter, Galpin, & Co.

(3) *Dictionary of Phrase and Fable, giving the Derivation, Source, or Origin of Common Phrases, Allusions, and Words that have a Tale to Tell*. By the Rev. E. Cobham Brewer, LL.D. Twelfth Edition, revised and corrected; to which is added a concise Bibliography of English Literature, by Eric G. Robertson, M.A. London, Paris, and New York: Cassell, Petter, & Galpin.

(4) *Half-Hours with Greek and Latin Authors*. From various English Translations. With Biographical Notices. By G. H. Jennings and W. S. Johnstone. London: Horace Cox.

(5) *The Great Artists—Albrecht Dürer*. By Richard Ford Heath, M.A. *Montagna and Francia*. By Julia Cartwright. London: Sampson Low & Co.

are well put together, and there is a great improvement in the illustrations as compared with the earliest volumes of the series.

Mr. Jerrold's useful little handbook (6) has the sub-title of "A Concise Digest of the Laws regulating Copyright in some of the Chief Countries of the World, together with an Analysis of the chief Copyright Conventions existing between Great Britain and Foreign Countries," and it may fairly be said to fulfil the conditions implied in this description. Mr. Jerrold, in all his statements of foreign law, has indicated the source whence he has obtained his knowledge, and the "place where the English reader will find it in the most intelligible form, should he wish to refer to another version of it or to the original." An appendix contains some account of the Conventions between Great Britain of the one part, France, Germany, and Spain of the other parts, the proposed Convention between Great Britain and the United States, and a brief sketch of the changes proposed by the Copyright Bill which Mr. Hastings introduced into the House of Commons.

Ladies who go in for what threatens to become the tiresome institution of bazaars and fancy fairs may possibly find some useful hints as to their management in *The Ladies' Bazaar and Fancy Fair Book* (7); but we cannot say anything in praise of the taste displayed in the illustration of objects which are supposed by the author to be suitable for sale.

Mr. Henth's name is warrant enough for the excellence of the little book on ferns (8) with which he has followed up his *Fern World*. It is worth while to note that, in a few lines prefixed to the volume, Mr. Henth invites all lovers of ferns to "assist him in his endeavour to make each subsequent edition more complete than its predecessor by forwarding to him data (accompanied by fronds) of the finding of any species of fern in any localities not indicated within the following pages."

Mr. Adamson has "done what a man can" by way of combining a *Life of Fichte* (9) with a kind of introduction to his system in a volume of some two hundred pages. Whether there is much gained by publications of this sort is another question.

Mr. Blakiston's *Early Glimpses* (10) is a capitally devised little book, in the pages of which a child of an inquiring turn of mind is represented as learning in the most natural way, from conversations with his father and elder sister, some of the most important elementary facts of physical geography. The method is, of course, not new in itself, but it has seldom been employed more simply and more successfully. It is perhaps unlucky that the illustrations are of very varying merit. Some, especially those of fish, are decidedly good, while others cannot be praised, and one of a waterspout is extraordinarily bad.

From the same author we have the more advanced and equally admirable *Glimpses of the Earth* (11), of which the object is "to enable the young to take pleasure in acquiring, and at the same time to save teachers trouble in imparting, a knowledge of the earth's surface."

A new edition, beautifully illustrated by Mr. Alfred Parsons, has appeared of Mr. Robinson's *Wild Garden* (12). It may be convenient, for the sake of readers who may have forgotten Mr. Robinson's object, to quote the sub-title of the book, which runs thus:—"Or our Groves and Gardens made Beautiful by the Naturalisation of Hardy Exotic Plants; being one way onwards from the Dark Ages of Flower Gardening, with Suggestions for the Regeneration of the Bare Borders of the London Parks."

Mr. Stanford has brought out a new and cheaper edition for school use of the late Mr. Keith Johnston's *Physical and Descriptive Geography* (13). It has been necessary to omit the historical sketch, but the whole of the strictly geographical information has been retained.

A second addition has appeared of Mr. Morrison's *Historical School Geography* (14).

Mr. Bell has collected and republished a series of Geological Excursion Papers (15) which had already appeared in the *Glasgow Evening Times* and *Weekly Herald*. They have been revised and extended for republication, and may be found interesting by a wider circle of readers than that for which they were originally intended.

Mr. Burgess has produced a singularly full and detailed treatise

(6) *A Handbook of English and Foreign Copyright in Literary and Dramatic Works*. By Sidney Jerrold, of the Middle Temple, Esq., Barrister-at-Law. London: Chatto & Windus.

(7) *The Ladies' Bazaar and Fancy Fair Book; containing Suggestions upon the Getting-up of Bazaars, &c.* London: Ward, Lock, & Co.

(8) *Where to Find Ferns; with a Special Chapter on the Ferns round London*. By Francis George Heath. London: Sampson Low & Co.

(9) *Fichte*. By Robert Adamson, M.A. Edinburgh and London: Blackwood & Sons.

(10) *Early Glimpses*. Introductory to "Glimpses of the Globe," &c. By J. R. Blakiston, M.A., Author of "The Teacher," &c. London: Griffith & Farran.

(11) *Glimpses of the Earth*. Sequel to "Glimpses of the Globe," &c. By J. R. Blakiston. London: Griffith & Farran. New York: Dutton & Co.

(12) *The Wild Garden*. By W. Robinson, F.L.S. Illustrated by Alfred Parsons. London: The "Garden" Office. New York: Scribner & Welford.

(13) *The London Geographical Series—A School Physical and Descriptive Geography*. By Keith Johnston, F.R.G.S. Maps and illustrations. London: Edward Stanford.

(14) *The Historical School Geography*. By Charles Morrison, M.A. London: Simpkin, Marshall, & Co.

(15) *Among the Rocks around Glasgow: a Series of Excursion-Sketches and other Papers*. By Dugald Bell, formerly Hon. Secretary to the Geological Society of Glasgow. Glasgow: Maclehose.

on the mystery of coach-building (16), much of which is of course somewhat too technical for the general reader. But the excellent "remarks on keeping carriages," at the end, should be read by all who keep carriages and care to keep them in good order.

Dr. Vines has prepared a second English edition of Dr. Prantl's "Text-Book of Botany" (17), with certain alterations, chiefly among which is the adoption of a different system of classification of flowering plants.

Ten years ago the curate of a fashionable church used to assert that, on the whole, he found "genius" and "yearning" the most effective texts for dinner-table conversation with the young ladies whom he was expected to entertain. Now he probably substitutes "sanitary" and "aesthetic." Mrs. Haweis tells us, in the opening paragraph of her pretentious-looking book (18), that "the appetite for artistic instruction is even ravenous," and that "the vacuum can be filled as easily as the purse can be emptied," because "just now every shop bristles with the ready means," and all at present needed to produce an elegant and refined home is the "cool power of choice." As much might be said of the facilities for making happy and suitable marriages, yet somehow discords still survive; but that may be owing to the absence of this valuable "cool power of choice." If the public for whom Mrs. Haweis takes the trouble to cater, and whom she facetiously addresses as "indolent lambs," have a digestion as strong as the ravenous appetite with which she credits them, and a power of assimilation equal to it, they may be able to find some "fine confused feeding" in this scrappy and often contradictory treatise. If they can buy a book with such a cover, they will probably enjoy the contents. At any rate, the originality of the style in which it is written will carry them on with the hope that some new ideas or useful hints may be embedded in the high-sounding periods or under such headings as "The Worship of Wreck," "Exquisite Obstructions," "Transparent Walls." Mrs. Haweis is very severe upon the slipshod people who class together the furniture used under the three Georges, Marie Antoinette, and Napoleon, and call it Queen Anne—a term, after all, only used for convenience, as we talk of the Renaissance; but she herself seems confused when speaking of the brothers Adams (sic) as contemporary with Inigo Jones, and in bracketing together Mr. Norman Shaw, Mr. Street, and Mr. (F) Gilbert Scott as Queen Anne architects. It is unnecessary seriously to review this conceited book, for the most part only composed of extracts, denunciations of nearly every style that has ever obtained, and a few recommendations, which, if carried out by the "indolent lambs," would inevitably lead to a trumpery incongruity in decoration, even worse than the tasteless efforts of the modern upholsterer.

A fifth part of *English Etchings* (19) is now before us. It brings out, with its predecessors, in a very strong light, the difficulty of printing etchings with any uniformity of effect. Artists who etch frequently assert that two impressions from the same plate are as different as two drawings by the same hand. In the case of the work before us, we are not tempted to use any such exaggeration, because we can only judge from one specimen of each design; but the three or four examples in each number are of such various degrees of merit, whether from difficulties of printing or deficiencies of original power, that, while a few seem to be of great excellence, the rest are only worth looking at once, if so often. In the new number we are glad to see a view of the old house of Sir Peter Pindar, in Bishopsgate Street, by Percy Thomas. It is in every way satisfactory, comparing for accuracy with the recent photographs, and for picturesqueness with any other print of the series. An interior, the entrance hall at Aston, is not so clear, and therefore not so interesting, while the striving after something like a Rembrandtesque effect is frustrated by the absence of any clear space of light. In a landscape, "Near Petersfield," the beauties, which are undeniable, are fully balanced by the faults. There is a fir-tree of the most delicately feathery character, and a sky which appears to be built up of big white stones instead of clouds. The critic is the more inclined to criticize because of the very ambitious and elevated aim of the artist, Mr. Snape, who has but just missed the production of a very fine work; but he has missed it. On the whole, however, this number is an improvement on those which have gone before, both from the greater excellence of the work and from the greater interest of the subjects. We are glad to observe that the publishers promise a series of views in old London, of which the Bishopsgate house is the first. There will also be commenced very shortly a series of portraits—no illustrated periodical can be said to neglect contemporary portraiture at present—the first of which will be an etching of the late Dean of Westminster, and the second one of Mr. Seymour Haden. On the whole, if we have found fault, it is rather because the work is worthy of criticism than from any wish to detract from the obvious merits of a very charming and, we must hope, very successful publication. It is, in fact, one of the most cheering signs of the revival of an interest in art that works like

these should be produced to attract the attention of the general public.

Art and Letters (20) seems to aim at becoming an English counterpart of an old favourite, *L'Art*. The illustrations are of the same character, and, apparently, for the most part from the same sources. The idea is an excellent one, for, though very few educated English men and women are unable to read French, many of them are unwilling to do so if they can get the same information in their own tongue. In a preliminary notice the editor of this new illustrated magazine remarks that the present fashion of engraving plates to accompany successive instalments of works of fiction affords but an inadequate representation of the higher claims of art; while of necessity, on the other hand, the few existing periodicals exclusively concerned with subjects of artistic study appeal only to a limited class of readers. This is undoubtedly true; but *Art and Letters* will need very high and sustained efforts indeed if it hopes to carry out so ambitious a programme. An attempt is to be made, so we are told, to satisfy a wider public, and to preserve, at the same time, a higher standard of artistic excellence. For this purpose a large portion of each number of the magazine is to be devoted to the consideration of the various forms of artistic production, ancient and modern; and special attention will be given to those forms of art which are connected with skilled industry. A chapter on the history of lace-making at Burano fulfils this promise so far as it concerns the present number. A large, but delicate, woodcut by Froment, from Hyppolyte Emmanuel Boulenger's "Brook," forms the chief illustration. Beside these features, there is a complete tale; and similar stories or novels are promised. Notices of Jean François Millet and Frederick Walker are charmingly written and profusely illustrated. There is a very picturesque view of the Arch of Augustus at Perugia; and the number winds up with some notes and news of "the several departments of art, literature, music, and the drama." We wish the new magazine all success, and gladly welcome another praiseworthy effort to bring the highest forms of art within the reach of all classes.

No reprint or collection of the works of any of our great men of letters should be more welcome than Mr. Matthew Arnold's edition of Burke's writings on Irish affairs (21). As Mr. Arnold justly insists in his preface, it is very far from being as easy as it ought to be to get the masterpieces of our prose writers. This collection will do something to supply the want as regards Burke.

Mrs. E. James (22) has written a very useful and handy-looking treatise on poultry-farming for Messrs. Ward and Lock's endless series of useful handbooks. Mrs. James writes for, and gives a great deal of good advice to, people who wish to make money out of their fowls.

Perhaps the people who want to keep the fowls would do well also to purchase Messrs. Ward and Lock's Handbook of Law in Domestic Matters (23), and then they will know what to do when the fowls are stolen.

Miss Ormerod will give them useful hints (24) how to escape the ravages of insects.

The pets of the children have a literature in their interest too. Boys who are addicted to the mild amusement of keeping rabbits may learn from a book published by "The Bazaar" (25) how to do so with the best results, and, we hope, also with the minimum of nuisance to other people.

(20) *Art and Letters*. No. I. London: Remington & Co. October 1881.

(21) *Letters, Speeches, and Tracts on Irish Affairs*. By Edmund Burke. Collected and Arranged by Matthew Arnold. London: Macmillan & Co. 1881.

(22) *Profitable and Economical Poultry-keeping*. By Mrs. Eliot James. London: Ward, Lock, & Co.

(23) *Handbook of the Law relating to Matters of Domestic Economy*. London: Ward, Lock, & Co.

(24) *Manual of Injurious Insects*. By E. A. Ormerod. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Allen.

(25) *The Book of the Rabbit*. London: "The Bazaar" Office. 1881.

NOTICE.

We beg leave to state that we decline to return rejected Communications; and to this rule we can make no exception.

THE UNITED STATES.

The Annual Subscription to the SATURDAY REVIEW, including postage to any part of the United States, is £1 10s. 4d., or \$7 58 gold, and may be forwarded direct to the Publisher, Mr. DAVID JONES, at the Office, 38 Southampton Street, Strand, or to Mr. B. F. STEVENS, American Agency, 4 Trafalgar Square, London. International Money Orders can be sent from any office in the United States, and Subscriptions, payable in advance, may commence at any time.

PARIS.

Copies of the SATURDAY REVIEW may be obtained every Saturday of M. FOTHERINGHAM, 8 Rue Neuve des Capucines.

(16) *A Practical Treatise on Coach-Building, Historical and Descriptive*. With 57 Illustrations. By James W. Burgess. London: Crosby Lockwood & Co.

(17) *An Elementary Text-Book of Botany*. Translated from the German of Dr. K. Prantl. The Translation revised by S. H. Vines, M.A., &c., Lecturer and Fellow of Christ's Coll., Cambridge. Second Edition, greatly revised. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Allen.

(18) *The Art of Decoration*. By Mrs. Haweis. London: Chatto & Windus. 1881.

(19) *English Etchings: a Monthly Publication of Original Etchings by English Artists*. London: William Reeves.

THE SATURDAY REVIEW

POLITICS, LITERATURE, SCIENCE, AND ART.

Price 6d.

CONTENTS OF No. 1,864, OCTOBER 8, 1881:

- The Transvaal. Sir Stafford Northcote in Yorkshire. Egypt. Progress of Agrarian Legislation. Tinkering the House of Lords. Lord Derby on the Irish Land Act. M. Ferry and M. Gambetta. Lord O'Hagan at Dublin.
- Coventry. Cockney Sport. The Paris Electrical Exhibition. The Salvation War Cry. Boulogne, Past and Present. The Revenue Returns. Opera at the Lyceum. Newmarket First October Meeting.
- Rosenthal's Physiology of Muscles and Nerves. Through Cities and Prairie Lands. Watson's Kant and his Critics. The Private Secretary. The Speaker's Commentary. The Cannibal Islands. Letters and Papers of the Reign of Henry VIII. Credulities. Minor Notices.

London: Published at 25 SOUTHAMPTON STREET, STRAND, W.C.

ADVERTISEMENTS.

DORÉ'S GREAT WORKS, "CHRIST LEAVING the PRÆTORIUM," "CHRIST ENTERING JERUSALEM," and "MOSES BEFORE PHARAOH," each 25 by 31 feet; with "Dream of Philip's Wife," "Christian Martyrs," &c., at the DORÉ GALLERY, 35 New Bond Street. Daily, Ten to Six. 1s.

MATRICULATION of the UNIVERSITY of LONDON. January 1882. A CLASS in all the subjects of this Examination will be held at GUY'S HOSPITAL, commencing Monday, October 10. The Class is not confined to Students of the Hospital.—For particulars apply to the DEAN, Guy's Hospital, London, S.E.

UNIVERSITY COLLEGE, LIVERPOOL. The Council of University College, Liverpool, are prepared to appoint a PROFESSOR to each of the following Chairs:

1. Modern Literature and History.
2. Natural History (including Zoology, Botany, and Geology).
3. Logic, Mental and Moral Philosophy, and Political Economy.

The work of each Chair will commence in January 1882. The stipend of each Chair will be £200 per annum, together with two-thirds of the fees, the total stipend being guaranteed to be not less than £400 per annum. Candidates are requested to send in their applications, and copies of their testimonials, to the Honorary Secretary, not later than November 1, 1881.

July 5, 1881.

W. J. STEWART, Hon. Sec.
25 Lord Street, Liverpool.

UNIVERSITY COLLEGE, LIVERPOOL. LECTURERS in FRENCH and GERMAN are REQUIRED, who will be expected to commence work not later than the middle of January next. The fixed salary will be small in amount, but the Lecturers will receive the whole of the fee paid by the Students attending their classes, and will be at liberty to undertake Private Tuition. Applications, with testimonials, to be sent in by November 15, to the HON. SECRETARY of University College, 25 Lord Street, Liverpool.

UNIVERSITY of LONDON.—PRELIMINARY SCIENTIFIC (M.B.) EXAMINATION.—Instruction is given in all the subjects of the above Examination at GUY'S HOSPITAL, during the Winter and Summer Sessions. The Class is not confined to Students of the Hospital.—For further particulars apply to the DEAN, Guy's Hospital, Southwark, S.E.

NORMAL SCHOOL of SCIENCE and ROYAL SCHOOL of MINES.—The following LECTURES will be given in the Science School at South Kensington:—**BIOLOGY.**—Professor Huxley, F.R.S., will commence his Course of Lectures on Monday, Oct. 10, at Ten A.M. **CHEMISTRY.**—Dr. Frankland, F.R.S., will commence his Course of Lectures on Monday, Oct. 10, at Twelve noon. **METALLURGY.**—Professor W. Chandler Roberts, F.R.S., will commence his Course of Lectures on Monday, Oct. 10, at Ten A.M. **PHYSICS.**—Professor Guthrie, F.R.S., will commence his Course of Lectures on Monday, Oct. 10, at Ten A.M. The respective Laboratories were opened on the 3rd inst., at Ten A.M. The Prospectus and full particulars may be obtained on application to the REGISTRAR of the Normal School of Science, South Kensington.

INTERMEDIATE EDUCATION BOARD for IRELAND. EXAMINERS 1882.

THE INTERMEDIATE EDUCATION BOARD are prepared to receive applications from Gentlemen who desire to have their names placed upon the list from which the EXAMINERS in the several subjects for 1882 will be selected. Particulars as to remuneration, &c. can be had on application to the Assistant-Commissioners. Applications, endorsed "Examiner," should be sent in on or before November 1 next, addressed to the Assistant-Commissioners.

By Order,
ARTHUR HILL CURTIS,
T. J. BELLINGHAM BRADY, Assistant-Commissioners.

1 Hume Street, Dublin: October 5, 1881.

TRINITY COLLEGE SCHOOL, STRATFORD-ON-AVON.—The Warden, RICHARD CURRY, M.A., is assisted by Seven Resident Graduate Masters, two being specially for Modern Languages. Special preparation for the Universities, Army, and all competitive Examinations. Exhibition to the Universities of £60 per annum. Junior Department for Young Boys. Large Playing Fields, Gymnasium, &c. &c. Terms 50 and 60 Guineas.—Apply to the WARDEN.

THE Rev. J. H. CROSS, M.A., receives a small number of GENTLEMEN'S SONS to prepare for the Public Schools. High testimonials. Great advantages.—Address, 21 Sussex Square, Brighton.

MILITARY and CIVIL SERVICE EXAMINATIONS.—There is a Department in connexion with BLAIR LODGE SCHOOL, POLMONT STATION, Stirlingshire, for preparation for the above Examinations. Honours gained during the past year. Three Appointments to Woolwich Academy. Seventh Place for Indian Civil Service, &c. &c.—Full particulars on application to the HEAD-MASTER.

MORNING PREPARATORY CLASS for the SONS of GENTLEMEN (exclusively), 13 Somerset Street, Portman Square. The OCTOBER TERM commences Thursday Morning, October 6.

PREPARATORY SCHOOL for SONS of GENTLEMEN, ST. LEONARDS-ON-SEA. Situation most healthy; sanitary arrangements perfect. Special care of delicate or very young Boys. References to Parents of Pupils.—For Prospectus address, Rev. W. HARRIS, Falkland House, St. Leonards-on-Sea.

WOOLLEY GREEN, near HURSLEY, HANTS.—A. M. HEATHCOTE, B.A., Oriel Coll., Oxford, prepares YOUNG BOYS for Public Schools, &c. Number under Twenty. Two Resident Assistant-Masters. The house is quite in the country, and in a healthy position. Full particulars on application.—Address, Woolley Green, near Hursley.

TUITION at ST. LEONARDS-ON-SEA.—A Married CLERGYMAN (M.A. Oxon), without family, has vacancies for PUPILS to prepare for Public Schools or Universities. All former Pupils have passed successfully. Only Three reserved. Comfortable house a few minutes from the Sea. Highest references.—Address, Rev. R. HOWARD, 7 Church Road, St. Leonards-on-Sea.

FOLKESTONE.—Mr. W. J. JEAFFRESON, M.A. Oxon., assisted by a Cambridge M.A. and competent Teachers, prepares PUPILS for the Universities, Woolwich, Sandhurst, and all Competitive Examinations. A few Vacancies.

EDUCATIONAL HOME for the DAUGHTERS of GENTLEMEN.—THE GRANGE, Emdenich, BONN-ON-THE-RHINE, Germany.—Number of Pupils limited to Twelve. Refined English home. Resident North German and Parisian Governesses. High, as the climate, it is a mistake to deny children those impressive side which are above, to the Directress, Mrs. BREMER.

HIGH CROFT (near GODALMING).—PREPARATORY for PUBLIC SCHOOLS. References to Marquis of Bristol, Earls of Lichfield and Lathom, Viscount Midleton, Sir D. Froby, Sir Samuel Brown, Head-Master of Charterhouse, &c.—Apply to Mr. ALGERNON STEEDMAN, M.A.

TO THE VERY FEW PARENTS in perhaps a million who possess sufficient intelligence to see that, in Education as in House-building, there can be no good superstructure over a poor foundation.

MISS DICKSON, 39 North Bruntsfield Place, EDINBURGH, seeks in any desirable quarter, under favourable circumstances, an opportunity of carrying on the EDUCATION of CHILDREN. This is the Adviser's chosen life-work, and she seeks a connexion with Parents who wish their children to receive individual attention from a Visiting Teacher who possesses unusually good vouchers of her ability as an Educator. She believes that INVALID CHILDREN would derive especial benefit from this connexion; for, as she thinks, it is a mistake to deny children those impressive side which are deemed essential in the Colleges. She educates through books, objects, diagrams, and pictures. Miss D. is accustomed to receive adequate remuneration.

LADY B. wishes to recommend very highly a SCHOOL on the South Coast, where her son has been educated for several years. The education given is thoroughly good, and the domestic arrangements are excellent. The Head Master is an Oxford M.A., and a Clergyman.—Address, LADY B., care of Mr. F. Golding, Bookseller, Minister Street, Reading.

SEASIDE.—A TUTOR, who takes a small number of Pupils, being desirous of adding at once to his numbers, will receive a few PUPILS (Sons of Gentlemen) at greatly reduced terms.—Address, Rev. C. D. H., 9 Salisbury Street, Strand.

SECRETARY, CASHIER, or CONFIDENTIAL CLERK.—An APPOINTMENT DESIRED by a GENTLEMAN, of considerable business experience, well accustomed to Book-keeping, Correspondence, and the Financial part of business. A moderate salary only required. The highest references can be given as to integrity and trustworthiness.—Address, H. J. Villa Road, Brighton, S.W.

TO NEWSPAPER EDITORS.—An experienced PARIS CORRESPONDENT, for many years past engaged on a leading London Daily, will be open in a few days to supply LETTERS or TELEGRAMS.—Address, OMBRA, No. 1's Address, 36 Rue Rivoli, Paris.

A RESPECTABLE COUPLE, giving up housekeeping, would be glad to meet with a SITUATION of TRUST, town or country. A nobleman or gentleman with fishing or shooting box would find them capable of doing all required; have been in good families.—Address, J. M. T., Bayham Street, Camden Town.

HAMPSTEAD.—SOUTH HILL PARK GARDENS, within five minutes of Hampstead Heath Station, N. London.—TO BE LET or SOLD, a Freehold Double-fronted HOUSE, containing fourteen rooms, also bath-room, with a constant supply of hot and cold water. Reception and Bed Rooms most conveniently arranged. Domestic offices on ground floor; good garden at the rear. The house is in thorough repair, and most pleasantly situated.—For particulars apply to Mr. DOLMAN, House Agent, 62 Haverstock Hill, and 60 Queen Victoria Street, E.C.

TO BE LET, FURNISHED, for a long or short term, a Lady's HOUSE, in South Kensington, within ten minutes' walk of Earl's Court and West Brompton Stations. Contains Dining Room, Drawing Rooms, Library, and five Bedrooms, and good domestic offices. Rent moderate.—Address, A. B., 35 Cathcart Road, S.W.

TO BE LET, FURNISHED, for Six Months, on the best part of Campden Hill (no opposite house), a small HOUSE, prettily furnished; good Library. A Housekeeper left in charge. Rent 3 Guineas per week.—For Cards to View, and further particulars, apply to Messrs. ELGOOD, 98 Wimpole Street, W.

HYÈRES.—TWO GOOD VILLAS (Eleven and Six Bedrooms) TO LET. Best sanitary arrangements.—Address, S. English Bank, Hyères.

PENINSULAR and ORIENTAL STEAM NAVIGATION COMPANY.

UNDER CONTRACT FOR HER MAJESTY'S MAILS TO INDIA, CHINA, and AUSTRALIA.

REDUCED RATES OF PASSAGE MONEY.—SPECIAL RETURN TICKETS.

Departures for—
BOMBAY. Weekly From Gravesend.
CALCUTTA, MADRAS, CEYLON, Fortnightly Wednesday, 12.30 P.M.
CHINA, STRAITS, JAPAN, " From Brindisi.
ADELPHI, MELBOURNE, SYDNEY, Monday.
GIBRALTAR, MALTA, EGYPT, ADEN, Weekly, by each of the above departures.

LONDON OFFICES: 127 LEADENHALL STREET, E.C., and 25 COCKSPUR STREET.

HOTELS.

BRIGHTON.—BEDFORD HOTEL.—Facing Sea and Esplanade. Near the West Pier. Central and quiet. Long established. Suites of Rooms. Spacious Coffee-room for Ladies and Gentlemen. Sea-Water Service in the Hotel. BENJN. BULL, Manager.

IFRACOMBE HOTEL.—On the verge of the Atlantic, in its own Grounds of Five Acres, with Tennis Lawn. Contains 250 Rooms, and is a model of sanitary excellence. One of the largest Swimming Baths in England; also Private Sea-water Baths.—Every information of MANAGER.

TOTLAND BAY, Isle of Wight, near Alum Bay.—TOTLAND BAY HOTEL. Magnificent sea views. Comfort, with moderate charges. Billiard-room and tennis lawn. Bracing air. Excellent sands and promenade pier. Good anchorage for yachts. Special train and boat service, Friday, 2.10 P.M., returning Monday, 7 A.M.—Apply to Miss FLEMING, Manageress (late of the Langham Hotel).

"MACNIVEN & CAMERON'S PENS are a TREASURE."

Just Out. Standard. THE "BIG J" PEN and THE "BIG WAVERLEY" PEN, 6d. and 1s. per box. Sold by all Stationers throughout the World. 1,715 Newspapers recommend Macniven & Cameron's Pens. They come as a boon and a blessing to men. The Waverley, the Owl, and the Pickwick Pen. Specimen Box, all kinds, by post 1s. 1d. PATENTERS: MACNIVEN & CAMERON, 23 to 33 Bial Street, Edinburgh. Penmakers to Her Majesty's Government Offices. (Wstd. 1770). Beware of the party offering imitations of these Pens.

ORIGINAL DESIGNS, FAST COLOURS. From 9d. per yard.

HINDLEY'S

CHINTZES.

Patterns sent and Estimates given.

C. HINDLEY & SONS, 220 to 224 494 OXFORD STREET, W.

DECORATION.

MORANT & CO., having for many years carefully studied the best periods of Decorative Art, and having had great experience in carrying out important orders, will advise upon the DECORATION and FURNISHING of TOWN and COUNTRY HOUSES, prepare Designs, and execute the necessary works at moderate cost. MORANT & CO. personally superintend all work entrusted to them.

91 NEW BOND STREET, W.